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### CHRONICLE.

In Parliament. **Lords.** **T**HE House of Lords yesterday week advanced some Bills, and heard from Lord BRASSEY an explanation as to the delay of the Opium Commission Report. This is, no doubt, unavoidable, but the sooner it is out the better—not, of course, that it will stop the reckless fanatics, missionary and other, who have in some cases already got into trouble with the law in India, but that it may perhaps help to settle the question with rational men who have been misled.

**Commons.** In the Lower House Sir EDWARD GREY confirmed in the main the allegations as to the misuse of the German steamer on Lake Nyassa for the purpose of conveying powder into English territory. The evening up to midnight was then spent on the Equalization of Rates (London) Bill, on which Mr. FOWLER, who, after having had a very fair record, seems to be now succumbing to the usual disease of Gladstonianism, forgot himself so far as to accuse the City of London of wishing to escape its fair contribution. The "fair" is the whole point at issue, and Mr. FOWLER knew it. The Prevention of Cruelty to Children Consolidation Bill was subsequently read a second time.

**Lords.** On *Monday* the House of Lords advanced some Bills and arranged to adjourn from the next day to next Monday.

**Commons.** In the Lower House Sir EDWARD GREY explained the position in regard to China and Japan and the Treaty Ports, especially Shanghai. The sham Report Stage of the Evicted Tenants Bill was then taken, and huddled through, no Unionists speaking and few attending. The rest of the evening was devoted to the Equalization of Rates Bill.

**Lords.** On *Tuesday* the Lords passed the Tower Bridge Approach Bill under a very extraordinary protest from Lord TWEEDMOUTH, who seemed, perhaps in consequence of his recent translation, to imagine that he was Member for the Progressive section of the London County Council, instead of being a minister, and a peer, and as such a representative of the nation. The Evicted Tenants Bill was brought up after midnight and read a first time.

**Commons.** The measure last mentioned, after some impassioned scenes of despair from Dr. MACGREGOR over the Crofters Bill, provided a lively evening in the Lower House. It had already become known that the Irish masters of the Government would agree to no possible compromise, and Mr. BRODRICK moved the rejection of the Bill in a very moderate and well-informed speech, rendered weightier by his recent experience in the Committee on the question. For reasons not difficult to discover, the Nationalists were in their most defiant mood, and a sharp altercation arose between Mr. O'BRIEN and Mr. T. W. RUSSELL. This, however, was as nothing to what happened later, when Mr. E. J. MORTON, by delivering one of those pinchbeck orations which seem to the orator (and we believe to some Gladstonian debating societies) to be BURKE *plus* CICERO multiplied by DEMOSTHENES, brought up Mr. CHAMBERLAIN in his most dangerous mood. Never was a pride of the Parliament of Little Pedlington treated so unmercifully or so deservedly as Mr. MORTON. Mr. DILLON then deprived Mr. BALFOUR of the opportunity of speaking without carrying the debate over to Thursday, and he and Mr. MORLEY enjoyed the doubtful advantage of speaking one after the other. The Government obtained a majority of 32.

On *Wednesday* in the Commons proceedings were unruffled, the Equalization of Rates Bill passing through Committee, the Building Societies Bill being read a third time, and the Scotch Local Government Bill considered.

The House of Lords, as above noted, did not sit on *Thursday*, but the Commons had a quiet day of questions, Scotch Local Government, and jokes from Mr. JOHN MORLEY, who made a very pretty little *début* as a jester by reminding Mr. CARSON that "law and order" must be maintained in connexion with the appointment of Irish Sheriffs.

**Politics out of Parliament.** The British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society addressed a memorial this week in favour of the Victoria Nyanza Railway to Lord ROSEBURY, who, in reply, denied that the scheme had been definitely abandoned.

A deputation on Gas prices waited on Mr. BRYCE on *Thursday*, and next day a curious letter from Mr.

GLADSTONE to Mr. THOMAS, the member for Merthyr Tydfil, on the subject of the Eight Hours Bill, was published.

Foreign and Colonial Affairs. There was no actual war news from the extreme East this day week, the telegrams merely containing accounts of the Emperor of CHINA'S edict in reply to the Japanese declaration of war, the movement of European ships, and so forth. CASERIO had been condemned to death, and the publication of his address forbidden. Dr. HERZ, of Panama fame, had been sentenced in contumacy to five years' imprisonment, with the usual funny little rider of a hundred-and-twenty-pound fine. The University of Halle had been celebrating its bi-centenary with the giving of honorary degrees to distinguished foreigners, including Professor SKEAT; Mr. WARD, of the British Museum, that happy cataloguer of endless MS. romances; Mr. KENYON, of *Constitution-of-Athens* fame, and other Englishmen.

In the telegrams of Monday the Japanese claimed a victory on land, near Asan, other details of the Korean matter being slight; as, indeed, was the news of the day generally.

There was again little Korean news on Tuesday morning, and neither the Japanese victory on sea nor that on land was confirmed. LI HUNG CHANG had appeared in public without his "Yellow Riding Jacket," the deprivation of which for alleged slackness in letting Japan get the start was mistaken by hasty English critics as equivalent to "disgrace." But it seems (if it happened) to have been a method of "encouraging," not merely "the others," but the individual. A great Anarchist trial was begun in France, the accused numbering thirty, the actual prisoners (for five were absent) including M. JEAN GRAVE and M. SEBASTIEN FAURE. The Government gave GRAVE and FAURE an advertisement by prohibiting the publication of their interrogatory, and the *Times*' Correspondent has puffed GRAVE yet further. Critics who have read *La Société Mourante et l'Anarchie* have not found anything so very wonderful in it. A French explorer had been murdered in Thibet. The marriage of the Grand Duchess XENIA, the CZAR'S eldest daughter, to the Grand Duke ALEXANDER had taken place with great pomp in St. Petersburg.

Wednesday's news was small, its most interesting item being the resignation of Mr. ESTRUP, the Danish Prime Minister, who for nearly twenty years has presented the curious spectacle of a Minister carrying on the KING'S Government in face of an adverse majority in the Folkething. It was said that separate negotiations had been opened in Greece by the English bondholders, which will doubtless call forth cries at Britannic perfidy. Captain LANG, who should know better than any man living, had given an opinion on the naval chances of the Korean war, corroborating the judgment of those who hold that Japan may have successes at first, but that China—other things being equal—must wear her down.

It was asserted on Thursday morning that the efforts of England and Russia to arrange matters between China and Japan had definitely failed. Japanese telegrams repeated the news of a land success at Asan; but no confirmation of this had yet come from Chinese or neutral sources. It was said that the Anarchist trial in Paris was being mismanaged.

There was again no positive news from Corea yesterday morning, but there was a great deal of contradiction of previous assertions, and it was agreed that reinforcements were being poured into Corea from both sides as fast as the Japanese by sea and the Chinese by road and rail could manage it. The expected grumbles came from abroad about the projected English settlement of the Greek Debt claims.

The British Association. The meeting of the British Association began on Wednesday at Oxford, where Lord SALISBURY delivered the Presidential address in his robes as Chancellor. It dealt with Evolution in particular, and with scientific nescience generally, the attitude hardly justifying Mr. HUXLEY'S subsequent attempt to claim Lord SALISBURY as a convert or a partisan.

On Thursday Lord SALISBURY unveiled a statue to SYDENHAM, and sectional discussions were in full blast.

Meetings, &c. The British Medical Association finished its Congress at Bristol yesterday week.

On Monday the National Artillery Association began its meeting at Shoeburyness, and the Ancient Order of Foresters theirs at Cambridge; this latter having some political importance because of a strong expression of opinion against State-aided old-age pensions.

Correspondence. On Monday morning Lord GREY deprecated, and Mr. CARSON exposed, the idea of a compromise over the Evicted Tenants Bill. Mr. GEORGE CURZON contributed a long letter on the affairs of Corea, and the Bishop of ST. ASAPH wound up his controversy with Mr. ACLAND by admitting insufficient information on one point, but reiterating the charge of false suggestion on another.

Next day a very interesting letter defending the Japanese in the *Kow Shing* matter appeared from the pen of Professor HOLLAND. In the matter of that international puzzle which is rather facetiously called "law" Professor HOLLAND is a *magnus Apollo*. Yet it certainly seems odd if, as he says, the commander of a ship of war can practically establish belligerency by ordering a neutral to do something or other, and can then act on her refusal precisely as if actual war had been declared. The approach of holidays was indicated by flying-machine correspondence, and details of the burglary at the Princess SOLTYKOFF'S.

Mr. CURZON published a second letter on Corea on Thursday morning, when Sir JAMES LINTON and Mr. ORROCK drew attention to the shocking damage done by an over-hot and dry atmosphere to asphaltum-painted pictures in the National Gallery. On this point Mr. POYNTER endeavoured to be reassuring next day.

Bank Holiday. The August Bank Holiday began very badly, but improved a little as the day went on in London. Elsewhere things were even worse, as will be seen from our cricket paragraph and from the fact that a cabman was killed by lightning near Canterbury. There was a dense fog in the mouth of the Channel, and a Cape liner, having come into collision with another steamer off Ushant, had to return to Plymouth.

The Law Courts. This day week it was announced that Lord Justice DAVEY had been appointed to the vacant Lordship of Appeal, and that Mr. LABOUCHERE had apologized to Mr. SELOUS for a paragraph in *Truth*, asserting, or implying, that Mr. RHODES had bought Mr. SELOUS off. An interesting picture case, the facts of which were in some sort analogous to the too famous destruction of Sir EDWARD BURNE JONES'S first "Love Among the Ruins," was given against the firm which had, as it was alleged, injured the drawing in reproducing it.

Two silver cases were before the Courts on Tuesday. The Court of Appeal confirmed Mr. Justice KENNEDY'S decision in favour of the London and River Plate Bank's claim to the "BALMACEDA silver," and some men were brought up at the Thames Police Court on a charge of stealing four blocks of silver weighing 5 cwt., and worth (despite these evil days for the white metal) the comfortable sum of 1,200*l*.

A curious case came before Mr. Commissioner KERR on Thursday in which a victim of cock-crowing and ambassadorial privilege had written straight to the



Queen of the NETHERLANDS, who is, as *The Winter's Tale* says, "a barne" (and, unless her portraits lie more than even royal portraits are wont to do), "a very pretty barne," with the result that the offending fowl had been withdrawn to Holland, or, at any rate, from his neighbourhood.

**Yachting.** The weather on Saturday last during the private match between the *Britannia* and the *Vigilant* was just what suits the American cutter—that is to say, a fresh breeze, but smooth water—and she won handsomely by some seven minutes. It is possible that the race would have been awarded the other way on protest, for the *Vigilant* broke a rule and gained somewhat thereby, but the *PRINCE* very properly made no claim.

At the Cowes Regatta on Monday (wherein the German *EMPEROR* arrived to take part) the *Vigilant* again beat the *Britannia* as well as the *Satanita* in a race round the Isle of Wight. Excuses were made for the English cutter, but it seems likely that the week's grooming and preparation to which the American boat had been subjected had really given her an advantage over the *Britannia*, which has taken the rough with the smooth by racing on every opportunity right through the season.

On Tuesday the *Britannia* came in a long way first for the Queen's Cup, but was disqualified for crossing the line too soon, while both she and the German *EMPEROR's Meteor*, which was second, were beaten on time by the *Carina*.

The race for the large cutters on Wednesday fell through, for the *Britannia* had to be docked, an injury to her keel some days before having become serious; the *Satanita* would not race, and, as the conditions of the match required three starters, the *Meteor* and the *Vigilant* could not contest it by themselves. In the next class the *Carina* and the *Lais* had a match, the *Carina* being again successful.

The race for the Town Cup at Cowes on Thursday seemed to make it certain that in the contests noted above the *Britannia* had only wanted bringing to the post in good condition; for, in one of the best and truest sailed races of the season, she beat the *Vigilant* by two minutes and a quarter besides her time-allowance.

**Racing.** The weather of the last day of the Goodwood meeting was fine, and the racing fair. Victor Wild, who had been made favourite for the Chesterfield Cup, could not get near, and the race was won by Worcester from Son of a Gun and Sarana. Thistle won the Nassau Stakes and Encounter the Visitors' Plate, in which Gangway, the Stewards' Cup winner, was second.

The Brighton Stakes were won on Tuesday by Egerton, and the Brighton Cup on Wednesday by Avington.

The Brighton High Weight Handicap on Thursday went to the *PRINCE OF WALES's Florizel II.*

**Cricket.** There was good cricket at the end of last week, *BROCKWELL* (128) and others making many runs in a North and South match at the Oval; while Somerset against Sussex produced a still better battle at Taunton. Sussex looked as though it must be beaten on the first innings and the beginning of Somerset's second, but made up rapidly on the last half of this and the beginning of its own second appearance.

This success, however, was not followed up on Saturday, when a wet wicket, the excellent bowling of TYLER, and the praiseworthy habit which Somerset has of always playing best at the finish, gave the Western county the victory by 110. Hampshire beat Essex by nine runs, in a fashion which gave some hope that a once-famous Eleven may pass out of the period of ill-

luck which has rested on it for so many years, and despite some excellent bowling from MEAD and Mr. KORTWIGHT. Cheltenham beat Haileybury by one run only. The North and South match was drawn for want of time; as were those between Lancashire and Leicestershire and Warwickshire and Gloucestershire, owing to rain.

There was a great gathering at the Oval on Monday to see the match between Surrey and Notts, the features of which were the wicket-keeping of PIKE for the visitors and the fine innings (106 not out) of *BROCKWELL* for the home team. At Taunton Middlesex at first made a very bad show against Somerset; but things were altered by RAWLIN and Mr. O'BRIEN, the latter of whom batted at his very best, and made 97 not out, which, by the way, he increased next day to 110. Yorkshire, except TUNNICLIFFE, Mr. SMITH, and WAINWRIGHT, could not do much against Lancashire, who more than halved their neighbours' entire score for two wickets; but Hampshire made (much hampered by rain) a fair show against Derbyshire. The weather entirely stopped play in the first match of the Canterbury Week, as well as at Leicester and Bristol, at which latter place, we regret to see, Dr. GRACE and Mr. MURDOCH were mobbed by roughs for deciding not to play. Colonial grounds have been notorious for this sort of thing, and football-fields in the North have seen too much of it; but hitherto English cricket has seldom been disgraced in this way.

On Tuesday Notts made a very poor show in their first innings; and, though they did better in their second, were beaten by an innings and 15. Lancashire left their first works; while Yorkshire did fairly in their second innings. Somerset almost equalled the first innings of Middlesex, and got half their opponents out for 70 in the second. Kent had the better of Warwickshire at Canterbury, and Sussex made a great score at Bristol, to which Mr. FRY contributed 109.

On Wednesday Hampshire, Yorkshire, and Sussex won their matches, the last-named in very hollow fashion. The Canterbury match ended in a draw for lack of time, but very much in favour of Kent. The closest fight of the day was at Taunton, where, though Middlesex could do no better in the second half of their second innings than in the first, the bad state of the wicket, which hampered them, was even more felt by their adversaries. Middlesex both bowled and fielded very well, and most of the Somerset batsmen (including Mr. V. T. HILL, who had batted splendidly the day before) could do little or nothing. Thus, despite the efforts of the brothers PALAIRET, Mr. DUNLOP, and others, Somerset lost by 19.

**Miscellaneous.** A long and last batch of school speeches and breakings-up had a place in this day week's papers, wherein also appeared full accounts of the Mawddach bathing accident, the victims of which, it seems, were members of one of the "Home Reading Union" parties.

This day week knighthood was conferred upon the Mayor of Richmond in connexion, it may be presumed, with the recent birth of a prince there. The LORD MAYOR made a "state visit" to the Antwerp Exhibition (many seventeenth and early eighteenth-century painters would have made beautiful pictures of his coach traversing the waves with tritons and nereids attendant), and the Social Democratic Federation mustered in its dozens in Trafalgar Square and voted a "co-operative commonwealth and a Social Democratic Republic." "Make it so," said Mr. HYNDMAN, who presided, and they went home.

It was reported on Wednesday that the privileged cabmen were much dissatisfied with the HOME SECRETARY'S special award in reference to them, and were

meditating a fresh strike. This strike came into effect, at least partially, on Wednesday.

On Wednesday the Queen's Bench Division refused a *mandamus* in the Northampton betting case, thus inflicting a fresh rebuff on the Anti-Gambling League.

**Obituary.** Mr. MOWAT, of Pembroke College, Oxford, who unfortunately committed suicide last Tuesday under the influence of some delusion, was a member of the University of some thirty years' standing, a good scholar, and a good man of business.—Mr. T. C. SANDARS, who died this week at the age of nearly seventy, was a great authority on Roman Law, and in other ways a man of mark. For very many years Mr. SANDARS was on the staff of the *Saturday Review* as a writer on political and other subjects, and this paper has had few contributors of greater ability and trustworthiness.—Mr. ESSELMONT, formerly member for East Aberdeenshire, was chairman of the Scottish Fishery Board, in which capacity his action may be remembered as having been the subject of considerable discussion in reference to election matters.—Dr. UNDERWOOD, American Consul at Edinburgh, was a friend of the late Mr. LOWELL, on whom he wrote a pleasant little book, noticed here not long ago, and a writer of some industry who always displayed in his writings a liberal and urbane disposition.—M. CAIN was a French sculptor of mark.—Lord DENMAN, who died at the age of ninety, was the standing oddity of the House of Lords.

**Books.** A magnificent edition of the late Professor HENRY SMITH'S *Mathematical Papers*, issued under the care of Dr. GLAISHER, has this week proceeded from the Clarendon Press. Professor SMITH was one of the most remarkable examples of the English University man of the best, and fast disappearing, type that this generation has seen—a great mathematician, an accomplished scholar, a politician of sense and balance, and a man of infinite wit.

#### MR. RHODES AND THE SATURDAY REVIEW.

MR. CECIL RHODES has done us the honour to write us a letter which, though we seldom publish letters, we owe it to his courtesy and to the interest of the subject to print *in extenso* :—

To the Editor of the "Saturday Review."

Cape Town, July 17, 1894.

SIR,—I shall be obliged if you will allow me to occupy a portion of your space for the purpose of referring to an article in your issue of the 23rd June on the subject of the Customs clause in the constitution of Matabeleland which Her Majesty's Government has, up to the present time, declined to sanction.

I would not have taken this step had the criticisms contained in the article been based upon the actual facts of the case. It is clear, however, that the position taken up has not been properly apprehended, while in one most important instance the facts have been misstated.

In the article referred to it is stated my offer is open to three criticisms.

The first is—

"That the British South Africa Company is not endowed with unlimited powers of taxation, and whatever tariff it does draw up is subject to revision by the Secretary of State for the Colonies. No stipulation that Customs dues shall not pass a certain limit is needed."

This fact, which was strongly urged upon Lord Ripon in the course of the correspondence which passed on the subject, shows clearly that the proposed clause contains nothing that could interfere with the policy of Her Majesty's Government so long as the country remains under direct Imperial rule.

I had in view the time, perhaps not far distant, when, representative government having been granted to the country, the power of the Secretary of State to regulate the tariff would virtually disappear. Unless some reservation is now made, the power of the local government to levy prohibitive or protective duties may then be exercised, as it has been in some protectionist colonies, to the disadvantage of British manufacturers. In my opinion the possibility of such a course should be guarded against, and as far as I can see the only way to effect this object is the

insertion in the constitution of the country of the clause which it has pleased Her Majesty's Government to reject.

Your article proceeds:—"If the South African Customs Union is to be taken as the standard, the Company may plausibly ask to be allowed to come up to it, which it may not be our interest to allow."

This criticism is plainly based upon ignorance or misapprehension of facts.

That Her Majesty's Government is not opposed to the policy exemplified in the establishment of the South African Customs Union is shown by the fact that in 1890 British Bechuanaland, in 1891 Basutoland—both Crown colonies—and in 1892 that portion of the Bechuanaland Protectorate which is under the direct administrative control of the High Commissioner, were, at its request, admitted to that Union. It can hardly be contended that any Secretary of State, with these precedents before him, could raise objections to the admission to the South African Customs Union of the country now under the administration of the British South Africa Company, the effect of which would of course be to raise the duties to whatever level may at the time prevail within that Union. That no application for admission has up to the present been made is due to the fact that, until easier and cheaper means of communication are established, the cost of living in the country will be very considerable, and while such is the case the Company is unwilling that additional burdens should be placed upon the population.

Your third criticism reads as follows:—

"We can have no guarantee that the South African Customs Union will not revise its scale in an upward direction, to use the beautiful formula of the German Chamber of Commerce."

I regret that the beauty of the formula should have led you to overlook, or, rather, to forget, the fact that it has absolutely no bearing whatever upon the question at issue. For the whole essence of the proposal—the terms of which are correctly quoted in an earlier part of your article—lies in the provision that at no time shall the Company (or its successors) charge higher import duties on British goods than are at present imposed by the South African Customs Union. By the insertion of this provision in the constitution of the Chartered Territories, the Imperial Government would secure to the British manufacturer the admission of his goods at a reasonable tariff, not only to the Company's territories, but, probably, to all the Colonies and States now, and in future, belonging to the Customs Union. At present there is no bar to the imposition by the Union of prohibitive duties on British goods, but upon the British South Africa Company joining the Union there would, for so long as the Union subsists, be a guarantee that the fair and moderate duties now imposed would not be exceeded. The necessity for the gift of prophecy which you consider indispensable in order to predict what would be the position of affairs in ten years time, would be avoided if the matter were settled on an immutable basis at the present time.

As regards your remark that when I made my offer the Cape Government was possibly mainly concerned with the abolition of the "hole-and-corner" duties now levied upon colonial goods in a portion of the Protectorate, you will see from my reply to the second criticism that the Imperial Government, by applying for the admission to the Customs Union of Bechuanaland, Basutoland, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate, has shown that it approves of the tariff principles established by the Union, namely:—

- (a) The free interchange of the products of its members.
- (b) A moderate tariff for revenue on goods imported from countries outside the Customs Union.

For it must be remembered that Her Majesty's Government placed the territories under her direct control in the Customs Union, in order to obtain revenue for administration, and not owing to any wish expressed by either the Cape Colony or the Orange Free State, who are the other parties to the Union.

As there appears to be some misapprehension as to the duties now actually levied upon British goods within the Customs Union, I would like to be permitted to add a few words on that subject.

In one of your leading financial contemporaries—the *Economist*—it is stated that those duties average about twenty per cent. of the value of the products.

A reference to the existing tariff—a copy of which I enclose—will show you that this estimate is entirely erroneous. While in many important instances British goods are admitted free of duty, in very few cases does the duty exceed 12 per cent. The articles that bear the heavier rates are chiefly products such as tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, &c., and not the manufactured goods of the British Isles, which, as stated, for the most part come under the 12 per cent. *ad valorem* tariff of the Customs Union. This tariff, as has frequently been stated, is fixed with a view to revenue, and not protection. It has been found that, in a large and sparsely inhabited country like the Cape Colony, it is far preferable to raise revenue for the purposes of government by the easy and simple method of customs than by direct taxes, the cost of collection of which absorbs a large portion of the proceeds.

In conclusion, I repeat that it is difficult to see how my proposal could in any way embarrass Her Majesty's Government in its relations with foreign Powers. For there is no claim made to



impose differential duties; but a simple clause is inserted in the constitution of the country that, in so far as British goods are concerned, the tariff shall be limited, leaving the tariff relations with the rest of the world open for consideration, but such consideration, as you are aware, would always be subject to the approval of Her Majesty's Government.

As long as the policy of the mother-country demands that foreign and British goods should be treated on a similar basis, it is impossible for a Colonial Government to impose differential duties, for the Royal Instructions forbid Colonial Governors to assent to any Bill having that for its object.

The more I consider the proposal the more impossible does it seem that even a Cobdenite could object to a clause which makes provision for a moderate tariff on British goods imported into the new country, and at the same time might in the future be the means of limiting the tariffs of Africa south of the Zambesi to the reasonable rates now prevailing within the South African Customs Union.

Yours truly,  
C. J. RHODES.

We may observe, in the first place, that the article on which Mr. RHODES comments was necessarily based on something considerably less than a verbatim report of Mr. RHODES's speech, and that had we had a fuller version before us our criticism would probably have been different. We admit, moreover, that what Mr. RHODES says as to the scale of the tariff is deserving of much consideration, though rather by our contemporary than by ourselves; that the point about the attitude of the Imperial authorities to the entrance of Bechuana- and Basutoland into the Union is a good one; and that Mr. RHODES is justified in italicizing his suggestion as to the *present* Union rate being the limit. On all these points therefore we have, if not exactly to retract, to acknowledge that Mr. RHODES has thrown light on the matter which was not available at the time of our article; while the latter part of his letter will certainly be read with interest.

But it so happens that his information as to what he "had in his mind" when he spoke in effect justifies our own argument, and indeed strengthens the view which we originally took of the matter. Mr. RHODES admits that he was thinking, not of a Zambesia under the control of the Secretary of State—where, as we pointed out, no safeguard against excessive taxation is needed—but of one entrusted with responsible and representative government. Now, when we, and we imagine when not a few other Englishmen, argued in favour of the establishment and chartering of the British South Africa Company, we did so very mainly and, what is more, very expressly on the ground that the establishment of chartered Companies offered some means of escape from the supposed necessity of admitting colony after colony to representative government; that it would give at least a chance of preserving a *Reichsland* open to English expansion and subject directly, or almost directly, to Imperial control. We were aware that not all the persons interested in the matter had this object in view; that some of them (may we say without offence our correspondent himself?) had a very different object. But we knew perfectly well that, if a Company were not formed, the usual process of irruption of diggers and squatters, assumption of control by colonial or home authorities, friction, and then the heal-all of "representative government" would necessarily follow. There was at least a chance that, with a Company exercising direct control and having pecuniary interests, this result, if not avoided ultimately, would be postponed. And we thought, and think, it very desirable that it should be postponed.

Further, we beg leave to doubt whether Mr. RHODES's safeguard—though we have no doubt whatever of his good faith in proposing it—would work. When the time came for according representative institutions, does anybody think it would be long before the member for Salisbury, or the member for Bulawayo, rose to protest against the trammels imposed upon a free self-governing colony by obsolete instruments drawn up and executed under far different conditions? We are quite sure that Mr. RHODES could write a

beautiful speech in such a sense; we will go so far as to think that we could write a very decent one ourselves.

And therefore, though we recognize to the full Mr. RHODES's Imperial zeal, and though we are not specially enamoured of HER MAJESTY's present advisers, especially in Colonial matters, we must persevere in our opinion on the main point that Mr. RHODES's provision is unnecessary so long as it would work, and would break down just when it became necessary. And we say this, not in the least as influenced by "Cobdenism"—for Cobdenites, we venture to think, are a dwindling and discredited band, in which we have no desire whatever to be counted.

#### FLYING MACHINES V. NATURAL SELECTION.

THE most promising new field of future progress "open to mankind at present" is Flying, according to the *Baltimore Sun*. The occasion of this encouraging remark is the appearance of a work on "Flying Machines," by Mr. O. CHANUTE, C.E. Mr. CHANUTE deals with wings—*des ailes, des ailes, des ailes*, as GAUTIER says; but, in the words of another philosopher, "we never gets no forrarder." Screws, aeroplanes, motors, and Mr. MAXIM are all very well and pleasant to read about, as also are cogitations on the flight of birds. Yet, as no one has "seen the" mailed lobster rise, Clap her broad wings, and claim "the equal skies," so Mr. MAXIM, Herr LILIENTHAL, Mr. CHANUTE, the Duke of ARGYLL, and other authorities on flight, do not personally cleave the liquid air. Mr. CHANUTE has chapters on "The Starting up under" "all Conditions," but flying machines do not start up under any conditions worth mentioning; so that "the" "Alighting Safely Anywhere" is a matter which need not yet occupy our minds. Mr. CHANUTE "thinks" that "men may reasonably hope eventually to fly" "through the air." REGIMONTANUS probably thought the same. He made an iron fly which flew, and "an" eagle which, by way of triumph, did fly out of the "city" (Nuremberg) "to meet CHARLES V." CARDAN, who was not very sceptical, doubted of the iron fly, and we do not feel perfectly happy about the eagle. But, as DÆDALUS certainly flew, we need not despair, and ARNOBIUS mentions the fiery chariots of SIMON MAGUS. PETER CRINITUS hath thrown doubt on the flights of SIMON MAGUS, and so has Dr. CARPENTER, as also on the flights of the late Mr. D. D. HOME. But HOME had no flying machine, or said that he had none; and this brings us to the great central truth about flying, hitherto unjustly neglected.

Mankind, we confidently maintain, will make no real progress in flying while we trust to machines and mere mechanical advantages. Here, we believe, most men of science will agree with us. What we must really look to is Natural Selection. History, sacred and profane, is full of records of men and women who have actually flown, unaided (as far as the spectators could see) by motors, parachutes, levers, or anything of that sordid kind. We need do no more than mention St. THERESA, St. COLETTE, St. FRANCIS, St. JOSEPH of Cupertino, and the late Mr. STANTON MOSES, who, however, seems to have done most of his flying when the candle was out. The most perfunctory study of the Bollandists will provide the inquirer with many other examples. Why, then, is flying an accomplishment still so rare that there are some who doubt whether any one could ever fly at all? The answer will have already occurred to every mind at all on the level of modern speculations about heredity, as set forth in the luminous treatises of MM. ZOLA and IBSEN. The truth lies in a nutshell. None of these "sports" (in a scientific sense of that word) who could fly were family people. All, or almost all, were celi-

bate. Consequently, natural and sexual selections have had no show. Had there originally been but one casual Manx cat, and had that cat been celibate, all cats (bar accidents) would now have tails. But, by natural selection and heredity, the first Manx cat doubtless allied himself with a very short-tailed female of his species. In an environment favourable to short-tailed cats, the shortest tailed were favoured in the struggle for existence; hence Manx or tail-less cats. But the persons who could fly were all, or almost all, unmarried. Even when, as in the case of Mrs. GUPPY and D. D. HOME, they married, they did not marry mates who could also fly. Had Mr. HOME wedded the lady who, in fact, espoused Mr. GUPPY, then all might have been well. In this path lies the true hope for flying. When science has discovered the flying man, then a Goorie, or flying woman, must be selected as his bride. Mme. PALADINO, we understand, can fly a little, but it is not alleged that M. PALADINO can fly; in fact, we hear little about him. It is too late to suggest any domestic alteration of conditions; and, indeed, as moralists we would be the last to approve of such a proposal. But it is to selection, natural or artificial, that mankind must look if it really wants to fly; the whole of the doctrine of evolution points in that direction. Reptiles became birds by no other method; still, the process is tardy. Not in our time will most men learn to fly.

### THIRD READINGS AND SECOND THOUGHTS.

IT must often have been borne in upon Mr. MORLEY during the debate of last Tuesday night that the Parliamentary guillotine is a very imperfect appliance. What, he must again and again have asked himself, is the good of decapitating all the Opposition amendments to a Ministerial Bill, if you are obliged to face their authors at a subsequent stage of your measure, and to defend it against them in its unamended form? Clearly, it ought to be in the power of a Government not only to muzzle their opponents in Committee, but to gag them on the third reading. Some such improvement in the machinery of coercion might make it effective; in its present condition it is really more of a hindrance than a help. That thoughts like these were active in the CHIEF SECRETARY'S mind the other night may be pretty certainly inferred from the character of the confused, half-querulous, half-minatory speech with which he closed the debate, and most of all from the anger, ill disguised as contempt, with which he assailed the tactics of the Opposition in declining to play a part in the farce of the Committee stage. Even if their abstention had been mere "sulking," as Mr. MORLEY affected to think, his attempt to distinguish it unfavourably from the parallel conduct of the Whigs in 1796 would have been an easily demonstrable failure; but, as a matter of fact, he must have been only too uncomfortably aware that Mr. BALFOUR'S move was quite otherwise inspired. Mr. BALFOUR simply refused to help the Government out of a difficulty of their own creation; and the sound policy of that refusal has been amply justified by events. Left alone with their Irishry, Ministers have been unable to make, or even to get the chance of assenting to, any of those proposals of so-called compromise which might have decently concealed the naked piracy of the Bill; and it will now, therefore, go up to the Lords in a form which ensures its summary and indignant rejection at their hands.

The confusion into which the counsels of the Government have been thrown by these judicious tactics was ludicrously apparent in last Tuesday's debate. Neither Ministers nor Nationalists knew in familiar language "what to be at." Desperately anxious as were both

of them either to pass a Bill of some sort, or to get up some sort of a case against the Lords for rejecting it, they found themselves saddled with a measure which is certain not only of being thrown out by the House of Lords, but of meeting therein with a fate which will be universally approved by every honest elector in two out of the three kingdoms; while, on the Unionist side in Parliament, it is deprecated only by a solitary pedant who is apparently so well satisfied with having made one kind of "moving" speech in support of the Bill that he has refrained from making the other kind of moving speech which would have given effect to his "noble" views in the form of an amendment. For Ministers and Nationalists the situation which they have thus created for themselves is a hopeless one, and the patrons of the Plan of Campaign, official and unofficial, unmistakably showed their recognition of the fact in the ridiculous variety and uncertainty of their attitude. Mr. O'BRIEN bullied; Mr. DILLON whined; and the CHIEF SECRETARY did both by turns. Through a great part of his speech he comically lamented the disappearance of those Unionist amendments which had been burked by his chief; and after a series of appeals to his adversaries to pity the poor fraudulent tenants, and an exquisitely absurd entreaty that the House of Lords would not treat the "pawns" in Mr. O'BRIEN'S "party game" as pawns in that party game of anybody else's, he concluded with something like a threat of the consequences that might ensue if these captured pieces were not replaced upon the board, with the polite intimation to the agitators who were the losers in that tournament at which Mr. MORLEY looked on so benignly some years ago that it is "their move."

Perplexing, however, as we may admit their situation to be, they surely might have shown a little more concert in dealing with it. The case was one to which Lord MELBOURNE'S historic observation was eminently applicable. It did not much matter what they said; but it was desirable that they should all say the same thing. This, however, was exactly the condition that their speeches failed to fulfil. Mr. DILLON talked compromise from beginning to end; while Mr. O'BRIEN did nothing but scream at the landlords, trumpet imaginary victories of the Plan of Campaign, swagger about the "forbearance" of the defeated conspiracy, and their equal readiness for war or peace, and generally proclaim the futility of all concessions to his party of fraud and violence at the very moment when his Ministerial patron is solemnly adjuring the Legislature to make these concessions in the name of statesmanship and in the cause of peace. Mr. T. W. RUSSELL, however—who, no doubt, will talk more in his old sensible style when he has recovered from his present very acute attack of CLANRICARDE on the brain—attached a good deal too much importance to Mr. O'BRIEN'S screech. This particular patriot would have had to screech in any case. If the door were open instead of closed, he would have had to go through the form of forcing it, in order to persuade those wretched dupes of his on the roadside that their restoration to their homes had been wrong by his own overmastering eloquence from an unwilling Legislature. For in the absence of any such demonstration he would always be exposed, not, indeed, to the charge of having "betrayed them"—that, of course, is much too harsh a word—but to the malicious imputation of having somehow or other got them out of house and home on the strength of promises which he has not the power, and must have known all along that he would never possess the power, to fulfil. Mr. O'BRIEN'S rodomontade may, we say, be dismissed. No doubt it has done the Government some harm, but in the matter of mischievous effect upon his own case, and as a cause of general consternation among the English supporters of the



Fraudulent Tenants' Reinstatement Bill, it does not compare with the earlier speech of Mr. WILLIAM REDMOND.

The peculiar value of that speech was that, whereas Mr. O'BRIEN menaces us with a renewed outbreak of crime in Ireland if the Bill is rejected, or not passed in the form in which the Government have introduced it, Mr. REDMOND threatens the country with the same disorders as a result of actually passing the Bill in its present shape, and will only promise us escape from them on condition of Mr. MORLEY consenting to a change to which he has resolutely refused to submit his measure. "Restore the evicted tenants to their unoccupied holdings, or there will be trouble in Ireland," says in effect Mr. O'BRIEN. "Restore them to their holdings, whether occupied or not," says Mr. REDMOND; "and, wherever occupied, turn out the new tenants to make room for them, or beware of the consequences." But the Government themselves cannot swallow a proposal quite so monstrous as that of actually evicting honest men to fill their places with rogues; and Mr. REDMOND, therefore, has thus been good enough to warn the Lords that, even if they were willing to assent to all the other iniquities of the measure, their stopping short of this crowning infamy would utterly destroy its "remedial" value.

Fortunately the Lords are not in want of this information to determine their line of conduct. Even were it less than certain that the compact with brigandage which they are invited to approve and ratify would fail, as most payments to the blackmailer do fail, to purchase what his victim wants to buy, the Unionist peers would be guilty alike of an offence against principle and a blunder in tactics if for a moment they entertained any suggestion of compromise. The question of principle need not be laboured; it is affirmed by negation in every clause of this blackmailing Bill. As to the question of tactics, if that were ever in doubt before the third reading debate, it is so no longer. The abrupt Closure of the Committee—unless, indeed, it was forced on Mr. MORLEY by the fact that his Leader is only anxious to get the Session over, and cares not two straws about getting the Bill through—was a fatal blunder in the management of the measure; and it was quite evident the other night that its magnitude is now fully perceived. The whole of the third reading debate on the Ministerial side was filled with evidence of Ministerial second thoughts. It is plain to the most careless observer that the necessity of allowing the Bill to go up to the House of Lords without any compromise having been even discussed in the House of Commons has reduced the Government to a desperate plight. It is certainly not for the Lords to help them out of it.

#### THE CASE OF THE KOW SHING.

WHILE we are waiting for trustworthy evidence as to what really did happen in the matter of the sinking of the *Kow Shing* some comments have been made on the event here which deserve notice. Of these the most characteristic, and the best worth attention, comes from Professor T. E. HOLLAND, and in the shape of a letter to the *Times* of Thursday. Dr. HOLLAND, as everybody knows, is an accepted authority on the bundle of speculations, moral disquisitions, mutual understandings, and use and wont, which is commonly, but with extreme inaccuracy of language, called International Law. Only a pedant will object to use a term which has been universally accepted, but the sin of pedantry is not far from those who do use it without a clear understanding of the sense in which the word "law" is used in this connexion. Anybody who supposes that it even remotely approaches the

force of the term in its ordinary sense—that is, a command given by an authority, and enforced by officers duly qualified to punish disobedience—is egregiously mistaken. He might as well, in SOUTHEY'S phrase, think that the lee clue garnets are the same garnets that are worn in necklaces. International law is a mere collection of recommendations or customs, which every Power can interpret as it pleases, provided it is prepared to take the consequences, or can observe when it stands in fear of reprisals. To take an example. At the beginning of the great revolutionary struggle we claimed to treat corn as contraband of war, but withdrew our pretension upon a threat of hostilities from the United States. The other day France insisted on condemning rice as contraband, in spite of our protest, and though she had protested against the similar treatment of corn. Both Powers on both occasions asserted that they were acting on the soundest principles of international law.

Professor HOLLAND argues that it is ignorant to use strong language about the conduct of the Japanese commander because a state of war legally existed, and because his act in giving orders to the *Kow Shing* was a proof that it did exist. That being so, "she was liable" to be stopped, visited, and taken in for adjudication "by a Japanese prize court. If, as was the fact, it was practically impossible for a Japanese prize crew" to be placed on board of her, the Japanese commander was within his rights in using any amount "of force necessary to compel her to obey his orders." In fact, he was entitled to send her to the bottom in order that she might be taken into port. We confess that this seems to us to be a decidedly lax application of the loose code of international law. It was decided, in the case of the *Trent*, that the captain of the *San Jacinto* ought to have taken her into port to be adjudicated on by a prize court; but that he had no right to seize the alleged contraband out of her at sea. It was on this ground that the United States Government surrendered Messrs. SLIDELL and MASON. On Professor HOLLAND'S principles the captain of the *San Jacinto* would have been entitled to sink the *Trent* if he had seen any "impossibility" in getting the Confederate agents out of her. One of his reasons for letting her go was that he had not men enough to afford a prize crew without unduly weakening his own ship. And in this case a universally recognized state of war did exist. Unless we are to accept the principle—which, by the way, appears to be maintained by Professor HOLLAND—that any captain of a cockboat belonging, say, to Guatemala or San Domingo can create a state of war by attacking anybody he pleases, it is impossible to believe that this was the case when the *Kow Shing* was so brutally sent to the bottom. Japan had not given us any warning of her intention to declare war. The dispatch of the Chinese troops to Corea was in strict conformity with the terms of a treaty with Japan. To maintain that because this latter Power chose to tear up its own engagements, and to plunge into a war of adventure without warning neutrals to stand clear, we are to have no remedy when English property and English lives are destroyed, is the mere midsummer madness of international law. We may not choose to interfere between the parties, but we are not in the least bound to allow either of them to take advantage of his own wrong to our injury. We maintain that there was no legal war, even in the slovenly sense of international-law legality. The code, too, such as it is, applies among civilized nations, which are bound by customs of humanity—not among barbarians who have nothing of civilization beyond a chatter of words and a supply of deadly weapons. If we are to allow it to bind our hands against them, our ships will be at the mercy of the freaks of any savage who is pleased to

declare that a legal state of war exists, that the captain's hair-brushes are contraband of war, that he cannot spare a prize crew, and that he therefore must send the vessel to the bottom.

#### LITERATURE AND TOBACCO.

ACCORDING to one of the many SGANARELLES of MOLIERE—the SGANARELLE who was DON JUAN'S valet—tobacco, like a knowledge of the ingenious arts, is a softener and a refiner of manners. "Quoi que puisse dire Aristote, et toute sa philosophie, il n'est rien d'égal au tabac." It is a school of virtue, and especially a discipline of politeness. It constrains men to exhibit an obliging demeanour towards their fellows, to proffer it right and left without being asked, and so to anticipate the wishes of those whom they may encounter. The tobacco of which SGANARELLE spoke was obviously snuff. But, in principle, his eulogy applies to all its varieties. It is, perhaps, as an instrument of civilization that the French Government keeps the manufacture in its own hands, superintends its cultivation with care, and selects, after the minutest scrutiny, the persons through whom it is to reach the public. Schoolmasters are not chosen with more deliberation. English readers unacquainted with these considerations may have observed with surprise a paragraph which appeared in the Paris correspondence of the *Times* on Monday:—"In this year's list of tobacco-shop licences, just published by the Ministry of Finance, appear the names of the widows of JOHN LEMOINNE and CAMILLE ROUSSET, the Academicians, and of the novelist LÉON CLADEL." On SGANARELLE'S view, there would be nothing derogatory to these distinguished ladies in becoming the means by which the elevating and civilizing influences of the "flagrant weed" reaches the public. Perhaps the imagination of some readers pictures them seated behind the counters of small shops, and handing over, not peaches, but cigars à quinze sous to a promiscuous public; and their reason draws the conclusion that we manage these things at least better in England. The Civil List pensions are more becoming than this. The wives of great English poets and romancers, who have been the victims of the publishers whom some authors delight to describe, or who have failed to insure their lives, or to purchase annuities for the benefit of their families, are provided for in a more seemly way, it may be supposed, by HER MAJESTY'S bounty than by the concession of a tobacco-shop licence.

We do not imagine that the most careful research will succeed in identifying any of the ladies named as a dame of the counter in any tobacco shop. These institutions are really an organization of State beneficence, or rather quite as frequently an instrumentality of State patronage and influence more or less legitimate. The bureaux of tobacco, of which we learn there are about 50,000 in France, are distributed into four classes, according to the revenue which they bring in, and the persons eligible for them are divided into four categories according to their rank and claims. The first class of these bureaux consists of those which bring in a yearly revenue of 1,000 francs and more—ordinarily very much more—and are about 1,500 in number. The other classes, and the corresponding categories of persons eligible, scale downwards to under 300 francs of revenue. The revenue of the twenty principal bureaux in Paris amounts, on an average, to between 14,000 and 15,000 francs a year. One of them brought in 63,000 francs. The titular licence-holders are at liberty to sublet them to persons who carry on the business. Obviously, there is a good

deal of sharing in 63,000 francs. It was a common reproach alleged against M. THIERS that, while he was President of the Republic, he provided for his sister by assigning her a *débit de tabac*. The provision may have been a very liberal one. The system resembles the monopolies of the TUDOR times. Until within comparatively recent times these tobacco licences were means of corruption and rewards for services which the most skilful manufacturer of plausible qualifications would have found it difficult to specify or to veil in decorous language. The strict definition of persons eligible for the appointments, and the reference of their claims to commissions yearly renewed, probably obviate gross scandals; but cannot always obviate the abuse and exchange of patronage. Like the *octroi*, the *débts de tabac* are means of political influence; and for this reason the Government has resisted proposals to put them up to competitive bidding. The revenue gained would not compensate the influence lost. The system is a vicious one, though its latest application may be meritorious.

#### NAVAL ANTICS.

A KIND of naval Kriegspiel was invented not long ago called, if our memory does not deceive us, Blockade, or some such thing. The distinguishing features of this game were that it could by no exertion of good will on the part of the players be made to last for any length of time, and was bound to end in one particular way. It has not, we believe, been extensively played. But, on the other hand, the general idea of naval manœuvres would appear to be carefully copied from this game of few resources. When the naval manœuvres which have come to such a sudden end were about beginning we pointed out that, on general probability, the two parts of the Blue Fleet must join before the three parts of the Red, because they were much nearer one another. This is precisely what has happened. Was it necessary to go through all this parade to prove a self-evident proposition?

We are distinctly of opinion that it was not; and are, moreover, so firmly convinced of the fact, that we should not think the thing worth saying but for two considerations. In the first place there has been a rush of mischievous loose talk about the so-called lessons of this year's manœuvres. In the second place the barren simplicity of the general idea has had the effect of cutting short the period of most useful practice which the fleet gets in a year. The lesson, we are told, is that the French fleet, supposed to be in the position of the Blue, could concentrate before the Channel and Mediterranean squadrons, supposed to correspond to the Red. Let us see how much and what astonishing things are taken for granted in this precious supposition. It is assumed that the Channel Squadron will be allowed to dawdle at Plymouth, instead of being at once sent to cruise off Ushant to watch the smaller division of the French fleet, which has its headquarters at Brest. It is assumed that the English Government, on seeing the approach of war, will commit the insanity of leaving the Mediterranean Squadron at Malta, or in the Levant, instead of ordering it to Gibraltar. If the obviously sane things were done, it is the English, and not the French, fleet which would be in a position to concentrate first. No doubt if the sane things were not done we should be beaten, unless the enemy were as great a fool as ourselves. This we allow; but we see no hope of escaping the common lot of the bungler and blockhead. If we could not make a rational use of the force we have, we should infallibly make a mess of a larger one. Be it understood that the question whether the general demands on our navy make an increase necessary has nothing to do



with the question whether the so-called lessons of these manœuvres have any sense or not. Whether our forces are great or small, they must, to be effective, be used on rational principles. To judge from the scheme of these manœuvres, and the comments upon them, we seem to be elaborately training everybody to do the nonsensical thing.

Our second point ought to require no labouring at all. Because the game has been played on rules which made a fool's-mate as good as inevitable, the yearly period of practice, all too short as it is, will be cut yet shorter. Ships are being sent into port after a week of practising at tactics and a day or two of scampering about to prove the self-evident. It is really time that a stop was put to this absurd misapplication of time. There is nothing in the strategy of sea warfare which requires all this laborious demonstration. It is intrinsically an exceedingly simple business, being, in fact, what the strategy of land war would be if all fighting were conducted on vast plains, subject to no alteration except by the weather, and surrounded by sheer cliffs a thousand feet high. The land is to the fleet what the cliffs in this imaginary case would be to the army. The number of possible good general movements is comparatively small, since they are not subject to the infinite modifications and limitations imposed on armies by the varieties in the surface of the earth. The great art of naval war lies in the handling of the ship, particularly when acting with other ships—which, indeed, calls for the highest qualities, and can only be attained by long practice. It is mere folly to cut short the already insufficient allowance of useful exercise which we give the fleet for the sake of proving that it is injudicious to leave the unprotected king's bishop's pawn open to the attack of a queen and bishop. We really do not want to demonstrate the disadvantage of fool's-mate. It is notorious. What is wanted is plenty of practice in so handling bodies of ships going at a good rate of speed as to concentrate a superior force on a given part of an enemy's line without getting your own ships into collision and confusion—how, in other words, to apply the art of HOOD and DUNCAN, of ST. VINCENT and NELSON, with the steamship. This will not be learnt by such child's-play as has lately been going on round the coast of Ireland.

#### A LESSON FOR THE RADICAL.

SOME months ago Lord SALISBURY reminded that particular set of spouters against the House of Lords who profess a desire to substitute for it a "strong Second Chamber" that the institution which they clamour for is not to be had, politically speaking, for nothing. Strong Second Chambers have to be endowed with their strength at the expense of First Chambers; and the bumptious Radical of the House of Commons would find to his disgust that he had called into existence an assembly whose members would be by no means prepared to acquiesce in the concentration of all legislative, executive, and financial authority in the distinguished hands of himself and his fellows. Among the various lessons to be learnt by arrogant Radicalism from the history of Denmark under Mr. ESTRUP's nineteen years' administration, not the least valuable is the confirmation which it affords to the foregoing view of the necessary relations of co-ordinate legislative bodies. For the long period in question Mr. ESTRUP has contrived to govern his country not only without the support of a Parliamentary majority, but in the face of an Opposition in the Lower House outnumbering his own party in the proportion of nearly three to one. During all that time his Government has subsisted on the support of the

Upper House alone. The majority in this Chamber of the Legislature has throughout his tenure of office remained steadily Conservative, and though the Opposition in the other Chamber availed, of course, to paralyse all legislation, they have been unable to prevent the Government from carrying on the business of the country. One of the first powers which Lord SALISBURY, if we remember rightly, indicated as that in which a strong Second Chamber would be apt to claim a share was the power of the purse, and the truth of this observation has certainly been attested in Denmark. Whenever the Lower House has refused Supplies the Upper House has voted them; and since the majority—or, at any rate, a sufficient number—of the Danish people have been willing to pay them on the authority of the Upper House alone, the Government have been enabled to "carry on."

This last peculiarity in the State of Denmark is no doubt the most striking feature in the affair. It is in itself an agreeable subject of contemplation to an unfriendly critic of democratic institutions. The spectacle of the "popular House" systematically denying the moral authority of the Government of the day to impose taxation, while the "people" themselves continue cheerfully, and even, it would seem, enthusiastically, to pay the taxes imposed upon them, is a distinctly edifying one. It would seem at first sight clear that the "people" who elect the Lower House cannot be identical with the "people" who allow the Upper House to govern and tax them in defiance of the Lower; yet the two Houses represent precisely the same electorate, and differ from each other only in being respectively the offspring of a single and a double election. And we must admit that to Mr. ESTRUP and his supporters the question as to which of the two "peoples" is the people of Denmark is a matter of quite subsidiary, and indeed of merely academic, importance. For all practical purposes of administration the community that contentedly pays taxes in sufficient amount to enable the business of the country to be satisfactorily carried on is the only "people" about which a Government need trouble itself. The "people" which orates, and protests, and demonstrates, and does nothing else, is, whatever its numerical pretensions, a mere negligible fraction.

It may, of course, be said by the uneasy Radical that this Danish paradox might have been avoided if the powers of the two Chambers had been more strictly defined. But, unfortunately, when constitution-makers set to work to make constitutions, it is exactly in points like this that they fail. In the present instance, though it is little more than forty years since the Danish Constitution was framed, and not thirty since it was revised, no constitutional doctor is able to pronounce authoritatively on the question whether a Ministry has or has not a right to govern without a majority in the Lower House. The Danish Liberals declare that they have not; the Conservatives denounce the doctrine as "unconstitutional"; and, as we have seen, the people of the country are apparently at once so neutral and yet so interested in the controversy that they perpetuate it by putting the Government in a permanent minority in the Lower House, and of holding them in office on the strength of a majority in the Upper. From all which the bumptious Radical may learn that tinkering of our own Constitution in a Radical spirit would not be by any means certain to yield Radical results.

#### THE OLD MR. GLADSTONE.

ALL admirers of Mr. GLADSTONE's great, though peculiar, powers (which we certainly do not deny) will learn with satisfaction that they have not suffered any permanent weakening through the causes which

have compelled his retirement from public life. The letter he has just written to Mr. THOMAS, author of an amendment to the Miners' Eight Hours Bill, is proof positive of this. Mr. THOMAS has appealed to the mild wisdom of the aged chief for guidance, so we gather, on the great question whether Local Option should or should not be permitted to miners. It would be disrespectful to Mr. THOMAS to suppose that his experience has left him so little aware of the habits of this oracle that he actually expected a plain yes or no. If Mr. THOMAS has learnt nothing of the truth, and has forgotten none of his illusions, then, indeed, he must have been disappointed. But we shall not assume so much. Rather we will take it for granted that Mr. THOMAS looked for an answer which would leave him free to stand by his amendment or turn right round, according to circumstances, and would leave Mr. GLADSTONE facing north by south, in patient expectation of the next move of the jumping cat. That he asked, and nothing less has he got, in a perfection of form which we do not think was ever excelled by Mr. GLADSTONE at any period since his powers came to maturity.

"Dear Mr. THOMAS," says Mr. GLADSTONE, "since you will write asking questions I must answer in 'common politeness.'" Mr. GLADSTONE never shirked answering, which some men have thought dangerous; but then they were doubtless afraid of saying something compromising, and that fear is far from him. When "I suggested the plan of local option for the 'eight hours to my mining constituents they appeared to me to receive it in a manner not unfavourable.'" Observe it—for eight hours strictly; so Mr. GLADSTONE does not commit himself to anything general, and his mining constituents only appeared to him to be "not unfavourable," which means nothing in particular. Besides, "Perhaps they reserved it for further reflection," turning it over in their minds in their cautious Scotch way. Mr. GLADSTONE does not know, and will not commit himself. If now Mr. THOMAS wishes to learn what Mr. GLADSTONE thinks, why he thinks this—that, "if the miners desire the Eight Hours Bill with a 'degree of concurrence approaching unanimity, they have a moral title to it.'" But Mr. GLADSTONE is "very doubtful" as to "the moral title to impose it 'on a considerable minority.'" It would be interesting in a mild way to learn whether these luminous guides to conduct have puzzled Mr. THOMAS. He may have asked himself "What is a degree of concurrence approaching unanimity?" Is it six out of ten, or eight, or must it be nine? Again, it might help a faithful disciple if a good teacher would give him a working definition of "a considerable minority." Do, for instance, Durham and Northumberland amount to so much? Mr. GLADSTONE's answer would probably be not less worthy of himself than this letter if Mr. THOMAS were to subject him to this string of inquiries. Of course Mr. THOMAS, being a reverential Gladstonian, has not interpreted the oracle to mean that an approach to unanimity possessing a moral title is an approach which can give you a majority at a general election, and that a considerable minority which it is doubtfully moral to coerce is a minority which may cause you to be defeated. They do not say these things on that side, whatever they may think. Some wicked people will go so far as to say them, and to add that Mr. GLADSTONE's letter is a fine Gladstonian paraphrase of the "Good old rule, the simple plan" known to ROB ROY—that you have a moral title to whatever you are strong enough to bully some weaker person into giving you. But Mr. GLADSTONE has the advantage in form. However completely they may agree in essentials, his letter would have been altogether beyond the reach of even the Red GREGARACH.

#### LORD SALISBURY'S ADDRESS TO THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

IN the early days of the British Association its President was selected almost as often for his social as for his scientific distinction. Of the first twelve occupants of the chair, half were actual or titular peers, and all but one of them sympathizers with rather than workers at science. Of the last twelve, only one has been a peer, and he is Lord Rayleigh. But the Association does well to interrupt occasionally the succession of distinguished specialists by selecting as its President one who, though in thorough sympathy with scientific work, has won his laurels on a somewhat different field. The day is passing, if it be not already past, when real distinction can be obtained in more than one department of science. But restriction of the limits of research may engender narrowness of thought, so that intelligent criticism from without may be both salutary and helpful. For this task no one could be better qualified than Lord Salisbury. In humorous self-depreciation he compares himself to "a country gentleman who is also a Colonel of Volunteers" appointed to review an army corps at Aldershot. But in this comparison he does himself an injustice. The pressure of public duties has not prevented him from taking an active interest in at least one branch of science; while his work in other fields has cultivated his sense of proportion and accustomed him to distinguish between principles and details. It is worth much to know how certain scientific problems are regarded by a mind of exceptional power and clearness.

But, in the assumed capacity of one of the unlearned, Lord Salisbury devotes the main portion of his Address "to a survey, not of our science, but of our ignorance." Great as have been the additions to knowledge during the last two centuries, there are some most important matters about which we are hardly wiser than our forefathers. Three of these he selects for notice; they are the nature and origin of elementary substances, the ether, and life.

There is a grim earnestness in the old jest about matter and mind. Men have been trying for centuries to solve the enigmas presented by the former, and by those conditions of it which are called atoms, but with little real success. Assuming the number of elements to be known, "we cannot conceive," Lord Salisbury says, "on any possible doctrine of cosmogony how these sixty-five elements came into existence." How strangely, too, are they distributed. "A third of them form the substance of this planet. Another third are useful, but somewhat rare. The remaining third are curiosities, scattered haphazard, but very scantily, over the globe, and with no other apparent function but to provide occupation for the collector and the chemist." What was the origin of these atoms? Experiment fails to confirm the idea, founded on Dalton's discovery of atomic weights, that they are simply "a greater or smaller number of hydrogen atoms compacted by some strange machinery into one." Spectroscopic research, wonderful as its discoveries have been, throws but little light on this mystery. It is thickened rather than dissipated by even Mendeleeff's great discovery of the periodic law among groups of atoms, significant though this cannot but be:—"If they were organic beings all our difficulties would be solved by muttering the comfortable word 'evolution'—one of those indefinite words from time to time vouchsafed to humanity, which have the gift of alleviating so many perplexities and masking so many gaps in our knowledge. But the families of elemental atoms do not breed; and we cannot, therefore, ascribe their ordered difference to accidental variations perpetuated by heredity under the influence of natural selection. The rarity of iodine and the abundance of its sister chlorine cannot be attributed to the survival of the fittest in the struggle for existence. We cannot account for the minute difference which persistently distinguishes nickel from cobalt by ascribing it to the recent inheritance by one of them of an advantageous variation from the parent stock."

True, particularly as regards the futility of comfortable words, of which there are nowadays far too many, both in science and elsewhere. But suppose that these so-called atoms are but modes or motions of a primary something—whatever it be or be called—and to some such conclusion more than one line of investigation seems to be converging—is it not possible that principles somewhat analogous may hold among the non-living and the living? May not



certain effects of changes in position be more persistent than others, and certain differences be acquired by the reaction of adjacent atoms?

The second unsolved riddle of science is the ether, the third is life. At the former Lord Salisbury does little more than glance. On the latter he dwells more fully, indicating two objections, as they appear to him, to Darwin's hypothesis of the origin of species. One is founded on the question of the age of the earth. "The real distance between the jelly-fish on the primeval beach" and man as we know him now requires, in the President's opinion, all the millions of years which the most zealously uniformitarian geologist demands; but this extension of time is refused by the physicists on the ground that the earth is a cooling mass. But are the demands of the two parties necessarily as incompatible as Lord Salisbury seems to suppose? If the passage from the condition of a protozoon to that of a vertebrate, in the case of an individual, can be accomplished in a very few months, is it so certain that similar changes have always been so extremely slow in the history of a race? The results of artificial selection (as he admits) are familiar, though these, of course, are exceptional; still cases, such as that of the dogs in Mexico, cited by Lyall (*Principles of Geology*, chap. xxxvi.), show that some adaptation can be rapidly produced by a change of environment. But this adaptation means a modification of the organism. Hence, whenever physical changes are taking place with comparative rapidity in any region, they may be associated with correspondingly rapid variation of its living tenants, so that Nature herself in the process of selection may actually "supply the breeder's place."

But though we think Lord Salisbury somewhat overrates the difficulty in regard to the action of natural selection, as formulated by Darwin and the distinguished students upon whom his mantle has fallen, caution is no doubt needed lest mere conjecture be accepted in the name and place of knowledge. Men of science, like the rest of the world, require now and again to be reminded that "we are all fallible mortals," and Lord Salisbury's pithy and occasionally pungent phrases more than once convey some wholesome warnings. Experience has shown, as he intimates at the outset of his address, that those who formerly cavilled at science in the supposed interests of theology made a great mistake; experience may show, as he hints at the end, those who attack theology from the standpoint of science to be hardly less unwise.

#### MONEY MATTERS.

THE dividend announcements and the reports of the railway Companies which serve the great industrial districts of the country, and carry a large proportion of merchandise and minerals, are extremely satisfactory. They go to confirm the evidence accumulating from so many other directions, that the home trade has been very large all through the current year, and that in fact, in spite of all complaints of small profits, it has been exceedingly good. Of course, it is to be borne in mind that the long-continued coal strike last year, and the high price to which coal was run up, caused stocks of coal to be depleted throughout the country. True, the strike compelled many works to be closed, and diminished very much the running of trains. But still—allowing for everything—there was a very large consumption of coal, and the production was immensely reduced. Therefore it was inevitable that there should be a great demand for coal when the strike ended, and that it should continue for many months. But, on the other hand, the dislocation of business was expected to prolong and intensify the depression in trade, and therefore to go far towards neutralizing the influence of the increased demand for coal. As a matter of fact, the "heavy lines," as they are called—the lines, that is, which derive a large part of their income from the carriage of merchandise and minerals—have done exceedingly well throughout the first half of the year; and in many cases they have done well in all branches of traffic and not in coal only. Leaving out of account the Great Eastern, as depending so largely upon its suburban and rural traffic, we find that, of seven Companies which are large goods carriers, two have increased their dividends, compared with twelve months ago, by  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., and two by  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent.; while the others maintain the same rate of dividend. It is to be borne in mind that in almost every instance the charges that have to be defrayed before dividends

are paid were larger for the first half of this year than for the first half of last year. The working expenses were generally larger, and the fixed charges for Debenture stocks and Preference stocks were also larger. Consequently an augmented income had to be earned even to maintain the dividend; while to increase it a still larger augmentation was necessary. Turning from the mere dividends to the reports, and selecting two Companies characteristic in many ways—one serving Lancashire and Yorkshire, the other the coal district of North-Eastern England—we find that the Lancashire and Yorkshire has distributed for the first half of this year  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent., against only  $3\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. twelve months ago; and that while increasing its dividend by  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. it has carried forward a somewhat larger balance. There is an increase of 22,500*l.* in the receipts from passengers, of 23,500*l.* in those from merchandise, and of 36,200*l.* from minerals, making a gross increase of 82,200*l.* It will be recollected that in the first half of last year occurred the cotton strike in Lancashire, while the first half of this year was free from serious labour disputes. Going back, then, to the first half of 1892, it was also free from labour disputes, and is admitted to have been a fairly prosperous year. We find, however, an increase in the gross receipts over those of two years ago of more than 72,000*l.* Owing to the increase in working expenses and fixed charges, however, the addition to the net receipts compared with the first half of two years ago is only 27,000*l.* The North-Eastern Company pays 5 per cent. against  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. twelve months ago. Two years ago the Durham coal strike reduced the dividend to 3 per cent.—only half what had been paid the year before. In the first half of last year there was such an improvement as allowed the Company to distribute  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. This year there is a further increase, raising the dividend to 5 per cent.; and the dividend might have been larger still but that at the beginning of July last year the Company purchased the Hull Docks, paying nearly 2½ millions for them. The cost of those docks, apparently, somewhat exceeds the receipts, so that there is a small loss on their working, and the interest on nearly 2½ millions, have run away with a considerable amount of money that would otherwise have been available for dividend. By-and-bye, no doubt, the docks will yield a largely augmented income, and with an improvement in the iron trade the Company will have a very much better prospect before it.

The stagnation in the money market increases. During the week ended Wednesday night nearly half a million in gold was received by the Bank of England, and there is every likelihood that the imports will continue. As we mentioned last week, the joint-stock banks have put down to  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. the rate they allow upon deposits; consequently the rates for short loans are, if possible, lower than before, and the rate of discount in the open market is barely  $\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

The India Council continues to sell its drafts very successfully. On Wednesday it offered for tender 40 lakhs, and sold the whole amount at an average price of about 1*s.* 0½*d.* per rupee. The silver market is quiet. As yet the war between China and Japan has not led to very much demand for the metal. But it is understood that the Chinese are buying freely all amounts offered at about 28½*d.* per ounce. If hostilities go on, the demand is certain to increase. There is also a fairly good demand for India.

The Board of Trade returns for July are decidedly unsatisfactory. The imports amounted to 31,845,000*l.*, a decrease of over  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. compared with July of last year; and the exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures amounted to 18,398,000*l.*, a decrease of a million and a quarter, or nearly  $6\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. There is, again, a large falling off in the American purchases of our goods. In July of last year the crisis had begun to make itself felt, and the exports to the United States were already declining. In spite of that, there is a further falling off this July of about one-third. There is likewise a decrease in the exports to India. And even other countries have not bought as much as in July of last year. Up to the end of June other countries were purchasing from us more freely, and there seemed every reason to believe that trade was reviving upon the Continent and in South Africa. Last month, however, other countries have fallen back. Upon the whole, the returns for July are worse than for any of the preceding six months. Still, we are inclined to think that that is only a temporary check; that there really has begun a recovery, and that the foreign trade will soon

become more satisfactory. In the home trade the volume of business is exceedingly large.

A much more hopeful feeling has sprung up upon the Stock Exchange, and prices of all kinds have risen. Consols have been as high as  $102\frac{3}{4}$  this week, and the Two and a Half per Cents  $101$ ; and all other really sound securities have risen proportionately. Even the American market has shared in the general advance. The impression is common in the United States and here at home that the struggle respecting the Tariff Bill is very nearly at an end. The general belief is that a compromise of some kind will be arranged; but, even if the compromise fails, there is no doubt felt that the negotiations will be broken off, and it will be admitted that no Bill can be passed at present. Any end to the suspense would be welcomed by the general public in the United States; and, in the belief that the end is near, speculators are already buying. We would warn our readers not to be led away by the foolishly optimistic feeling that is springing up. If the compromise fails, it is almost certain that another attempt will be made in the Session that begins in December to pass some kind of a Bill, so that uncertainty will continue all through the year. On the other hand, if a compromise is arrived at, it is to be recollected that there will be elections for a new House of Representatives in the autumn; and if, as seems highly probable now, the Republicans win, they may undo what the Democrats are now trying to accomplish, so that uncertainty and suspense are likely to continue. In any event, the settlement of the Tariff question is quite subordinate to the currency distrust. As long as that continues speculation is dangerous. There is no sign of improvement in South America, the depression is as great as ever in Australia, the crisis both in Spain and Italy is growing worse, and although the negotiations for a settlement of the Greek debt are continued, they do not promise very well. Altogether, therefore, we would repeat the advice we have so often given to investors—to be very cautious just now how they act. Undoubtedly, there are fairly good securities which can be bought on favourable terms. But, on the other hand, there may be more difficulties in the United States. That may cause a very unpleasant feeling, and lead to a general fall. As for speculation, it is utterly rash and unwarranted, and the public will do well to avoid it altogether.

Consols closed on Thursday night at  $102\frac{1}{8}$ , being a rise on balance for the week of  $\frac{1}{8}$ . The Two and a Half per Cents advanced  $\frac{3}{4}$ , closing at  $100\frac{1}{2}$ . India Sterling Three per Cents closed at  $100\frac{1}{4}$ , a fall compared with the preceding Thursday of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Rupee Paper closed at  $55\frac{3}{4}$ , an advance on balance of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Colonial securities have all advanced on balance. Canadian Three and a Half closed on Thursday at  $105\frac{1}{4}$ , being an advance for the week of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . New South Wales Three and a Half closed at  $98\frac{1}{4}$ , an advance of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . New Zealand Three and a Half closed at  $100\frac{1}{4}$ , an improvement of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Queensland Three and a Half closed at  $94$ , an advance for the week of  $1\frac{1}{4}$ . South Australian Three and a Half improved  $\frac{3}{4}$ , closing at  $97$ ; and Victoria Three and a Half closed at  $96\frac{1}{2}$ , a rise of  $\frac{1}{2}$ . In the Home Railway market the announcement of the North-Western dividend has hardened prices all round. Amongst the heavy stocks London and North-Western advanced on balance for the week  $4\frac{3}{4}$ , closing on Thursday afternoon at  $178\frac{1}{4}$ . Midland advanced two points, closing at  $161\frac{1}{4}$ ; and Great Eastern also advanced two points, closing at  $82\frac{1}{4}$ . London and Brighton Undivided Ordinary closed at  $171\frac{1}{2}$ , a rise of  $1$ ; and Brighton "A" advanced  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , closing at  $157\frac{3}{4}$ . In the American market the improvement which we noticed last week has been well maintained, and prices continue to show an upward tendency. Comparing Thursday night last with the preceding Thursday, Canadian Pacific shares advanced  $3\frac{1}{2}$  points to  $68\frac{1}{2}$ ; Milwaukee advanced  $2\frac{3}{4}$  to  $62$ ; Illinois Central  $1\frac{1}{4}$  to  $94\frac{1}{4}$ ; Lake Shores a point to  $133\frac{3}{4}$ ; and New York Central closed at  $101\frac{1}{4}$ , an advance of two points. In the speculative department of this market Atchisons gained  $\frac{1}{4}$  on balance, closing on Thursday at  $4\frac{1}{4}$ ; and Erie shares advanced  $\frac{3}{4}$ , closing at  $14\frac{3}{4}$ . Foreign Government securities have been firm during the week on support from Paris. French Rentes closed on Thursday at  $101\frac{1}{4}$ , being a gain of  $\frac{1}{4}$  compared with the preceding Thursday; Italian Five per Cents closed at  $79\frac{3}{4}$ , a rise of  $\frac{1}{4}$ ; Spanish Fours closed at  $65\frac{1}{4}$ , an advance of  $\frac{1}{4}$ ; the Egyptian Domain Loan closed

at  $104\frac{1}{4}$ , a gain of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . In the South American department, Argentine Fives and the Funding Loan each improved  $1\frac{1}{2}$  during the week, closing respectively at  $62\frac{1}{4}$  and  $65\frac{1}{4}$ . Chilians have also improved  $1\frac{1}{2}$ ; they closed on Thursday at  $94\frac{1}{4}$ . In the miscellaneous market Allsopp's Ordinary stock has fallen two points to  $95\frac{1}{4}$ .

#### THE SCALES OF ALYPIUS.

ALYPIUS has generally been very badly treated. People have taken his manual for a guide to ancient music as a whole; and when their guide has failed them they have abused its author as a blunderer. But poor Alypius was only writing of what he knew—the music of his own times; and nobody seems to have taken the trouble to ascertain what this was like. As a matter of fact, it is a rather curious form of music, belonging to a period of transition. It cannot date from the palmy days, when musicians used eighteen different intervals that were smaller than our semitone. The decline had begun; but music still had a long way to fall before it reached the dead level of Bach's equal temperament.

In his manual Alypius sets out five and forty scales. Fifteen of these are diatonic, fifteen chromatic, and fifteen enharmonic. In each group of fifteen the arrangement is the same. There is a Lydian scale, a lower Lydian and an upper Lydian; an *Æolian*, a lower *Æolian* and an upper *Æolian*; a Phrygian, a lower Phrygian and an upper Phrygian; an Ionian, a lower Ionian and an upper Ionian; a Dorian, a lower Dorian and an upper Dorian.

Each scale has eighteen notes. The first eight notes and the last seven together form two octaves; and, practically, we may neglect these seven notes, for the second octave is merely a repetition of the first. In every scale the second note is a tone above the first, the fifth is two tones and a half above the second, and the eighth is two tones and a half above the fifth. The second, third, fourth, and fifth notes are reckoned as a tetrachord; and so also the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth. The three remaining notes—the ninth, tenth, and eleventh—are reckoned with the eighth as a "conjunct" tetrachord. And the eleventh note is two tones and a half above the eighth.

Every note is indicated by a pair of letters—one letter for the voices and the other for the instruments. In the lettering for voices the common letters of the alphabet are taken in their natural order from Alpha to Omega. Next beyond the Omega there is a modified Alpha, beginning the alphabet again with every letter modified. And next before the common Alpha there is a modified Omega, finishing an alphabet with another set of modifications. But this last alphabet omits the letters  $\Pi$ ,  $P$ ,  $\Sigma$ . The omission is distinctly an improvement, for it reduces the alphabet to twenty-one letters; and there were twenty-one notes within the octave.

We can easily pick out the letters that mark the tones and semitones. Thus in the Lydian scales the letters  $Z$  and  $I$  are used to indicate two notes that must be separated by a tone; and the same use is made of  $I$  and  $M$  in the Phrygian scales. Then in the Ionian scales the letters  $Z$  and  $O$  are used to indicate two notes that must be separated by two tones and a half; so the letters  $M$  and  $O$  are assigned to notes that stand a semitone apart. And similar tests can be applied all through the alphabets.

Let us now take the three *Æolian* diatonic scales, for these involve no intervals but tones and semitones; and let us suppose for the present that the tones and semitones of Alypius are the mean tones and semitones that we use now. The lower *Æolian* scale is nothing but  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, a$ , with  $a, bb, c, d$  as conjunct tetrachord. The common *Æolian* scale is formed from this by starting on the fourth note, and making an octave  $d, e, f, g, a, bb, c, d$ , with a conjunct tetrachord to match. And the upper *Æolian* is formed from the common *Æolian* in exactly the same way. The connexion between these scales can be seen at a glance:—

$a, b, c, d, e, f, g, a, bb, c, d.$   
 $d, e, f, g, a, bb, c, d, eb, f, g.$   
 $g, a, bb, c, c, eb, f, g, ab, bb, c.$

If this upper *Æolian* scale be written an octave lower, it becomes the lower Ionian scale; and the Ionian and upper Ionian scales are formed from this in exactly the same way, that the *Æolian* and upper *Æolian* scales are formed from the lower *Æolian*. These six scales belong to one group,



and the remaining nine to another. The lower Lydian scale begets the Lydian, and that begets the upper Lydian. Written an octave lower, the upper Lydian scale becomes the lower Phrygian. This begets the Phrygian, and that the upper Phrygian. And written an octave lower, the upper Phrygian scale becomes the lower Dorian. And this begets the Dorian, and that the upper Dorian. We can supply the missing link between the groups by forming another Dorian scale from the upper Dorian as that is formed from the Dorian; and this uppermost Dorian scale will be the lower Æolian an octave above its proper place. Or we can form an uppermost Ionian scale an octave above the lower Lydian. But if we count scales as identical, when they differ only by an octave, we can eliminate the lower Ionian, lower Phrygian, and lower Dorian. And then the twelve remaining scales will form a perfect cycle, each begetting its successor, and the twelfth begetting the first.

All these diatonic scales are governed by two simple laws. There must be a tone between the first note and the second, a tone and a half between the second and the fourth, a tone between the fourth and the fifth, a tone and a half between the fifth and the seventh, a tone between the seventh and eighth, a tone and a half between the eighth and tenth, and a tone between the tenth and eleventh. The intervals between the second and third, the fifth and sixth, and the eighth and ninth, must be the shortest intervals possible. This second law has curious results. Thus, for example, the letters I, K, M, and O are assigned to notes that stand a semitone apart; but I and K are consecutive, while A is omitted between K and M, and N and  $\Xi$  are omitted between M and O. Suppose that A bisects the interval between K and M, and that N and  $\Xi$  trisect the interval between M and O. Then, after I the shortest possible interval will be a semitone, after K it will be half a semitone, and after M it will be one-third of a semitone.

The chromatic scales are formed from the diatonic scales by lowering the fourth, seventh, and tenth notes; and here the law appears to be that the intervals between the third and fourth, the sixth and seventh, and the ninth and tenth must respectively be equal to the intervals between the second and third, the fifth and sixth, and the eighth and ninth. The letters of Alypius may be transcribed as follows:—

$a, a^1, a^2, b, b_1, b_2, c, c^1, c^2, d, d^1, d^2, e, e_1, e_2, f, f^1, f^2, g, g^1, g^2,$

where the letters with a figure above are those that bisect the semitones, and the letters with a figure below are those that trisect them. (For convenience, we are making our transcript here a semitone lower than we made it before in dealing with the Æolian scales.) Now, whenever the intervals after the second, fifth, or eighth notes are marked by  $bb_1$  or  $ee_1$ , the intervals after the third, sixth, or ninth notes are marked by  $b_1b_2$  or  $e_1e_2$  in the chromatic scales. Whenever the former intervals are marked by  $cc^1, dd^1, ff^1, gg^1, aa^1$ , the latter intervals are marked by  $c^1c^2, d^1d^2, f^1f^2, g^1g^2, a^1a^2$ . And whenever the former intervals are marked by  $cc^2, d^2d^3, f^2f^3, g^2g^3, a^2a^3$ , the latter intervals are marked by  $dd^2, gg^2, aa^2$ . But whenever the former intervals are marked  $ab$  or  $de$ , the latter intervals are not marked by  $bc$  or  $ef$ , as might have been expected, but by  $bb_2$  or  $ee_2$ . These are all the cases that occur.

The exception in the last two cases will help us to prove a rule. In  $c^2d$  and  $dd^2, f^2g$  and  $gg^2, g^2a$  and  $aa^2$ , both the intervals are semitones; and, as the first interval is again a semitone in  $ab$  and  $bb_1, d^2e$  and  $ee_1$ , there is a presumption that the second interval will also be a semitone. The letters  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  being interposed between  $b$  and  $c$ , and  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  between  $e$  and  $f$ , there is a presumption that, if the interval  $bb_1$  or  $ee_1$  is a semitone, the interval  $bc$  or  $ef$  will be about three-quarters of a tone. Alypius, however, reckons  $bc$  and  $ef$  as semitones; and thus we have to face the question whether a semitone could ever be three-quarters of a tone. The answer can be obtained from Ptolemy's *Harmonics*, ii. 14. The tetrachord was always reckoned as two tones and a half; but Eratosthenes (and the Pythagoreans generally) used major tones, determined by the ratio 9 to 8, and the semitone had therefore to be determined by the ratio 256 to 243, since the product of the three ratios was necessarily 4 to 3. The semitone was consequently half a minor tone. Then, about Nero's time, Didymus replaced one of the major tones by a minor tone, determined by the ratio 10 to 9, and thus obtained the ratio 16 to 15 for the semitone. So the semitone became

five-eighths of a minor tone. Now, if the other major tone had also been replaced by a minor tone, the semitone would have been determined by the ratio 27 to 25, and would thus have been three-quarters of a minor tone. This must have been the system adopted by Alypius. If he used minor tones for  $cd, de, fg, ga$ —the four tones in his tetrachords—he would have intervals of three-quarters of a tone for the so-called semitones  $bc, ef$ . And this is a reasonable explanation of the fact that, while the semitones  $cc^2, dd^2, ff^2, gg^2$  are each divided into two, the so-called semitones  $bc, ef$  are each divided into three.

From this we may infer that the only intervals in the system of Alypius are quarters and halves of tones. That being so, every tetrachord in his chromatic scales must assume one or other of these two forms—intervals of half tone, half tone, tone and a half, or intervals of quarter tone, quarter tone, double tone. The former is a true chromatic tetrachord; but the latter is assigned to enharmonics. And this seems to raise a difficulty, for Alypius sets out fifteen enharmonic scales as a separate group, apart from the chromatic scales. But every one of these enharmonic scales has exactly the same notes as the corresponding scale in the chromatic group; so the difference here is only in the names. Still, there is a difference; for, if we examine these fifteen scales in detail, we find that four of them are purely chromatic, while seven are purely enharmonic, and the other four are mixed. In all the Æolian scales the tetrachords begin with half tones, and in all the Lydian and Phrygian scales the tetrachords begin with quarter tones. The lower Ionian scale follows the upper Æolian with half tones in the tetrachords; in the Ionian scale the conjunct tetrachord has quarter tones; in the upper Ionian scale this tetrachord is included in the octave, and the conjunct tetrachord again has quarter tones. Similarly, the lower Dorian follows the upper Phrygian with quarter tones; the Dorian has half tones in the conjunct tetrachord; the upper Dorian includes this tetrachord in the octave, and again has half tones in the conjunct tetrachord.

Returning now to the diatonic scales, we see that wherever a chromatic scale has a tetrachord with intervals of half tone, half tone, tone and a half, the corresponding diatonic scale has a tetrachord with intervals of half tone, tone, tone; and this is a true diatonic tetrachord. But wherever a chromatic scale has a tetrachord with intervals of quarter tone, quarter tone, double tone, the corresponding diatonic scale has a tetrachord with intervals of quarter tone, tone and a quarter, tone; and this is approximately the diatonic tetrachord of Archytas. The ratios in that were 9 to 8, 8 to 7, and 28 to 27, which produce intervals of a major tone, a minor tone plus a quarter of a major tone, and about five-sixteenths of a major tone.

So the scales of Alypius are comparatively simple. In his chromatic tetrachords he never follows Didymus in making the first interval larger than the second, nor Archytas and Ptolemy in making the second larger than the first; nor does he follow Aristoxenus in forming his equal intervals of such fractions of a tone as a third or three-eighths. His chromatic tetrachords are all alike. His enharmonic tetrachords are also of a single type. And in his diatonic tetrachords he has only a couple of types—one to match the chromatic and the other to match the enharmonic.

The result is that the five and forty scales can be reduced to twenty-four by taking away the duplicates; and this indicates that Alypius is setting out his scales in a form belonging to a bygone age. The chromatic and enharmonic scales had once formed groups apart; but he sets out the same set of scales in both the groups. And some of these scales are entirely chromatic, while others are entirely enharmonic, and others are mixed; so that, if they are to be divided, there ought to be three divisions instead of two. And then in every group of fifteen scales he has three that are only repetitions of others an octave lower down. The thirteenth scale is always an octave above the first, and there are two superfluous scales beyond; while two are missing in the octave. Now, a scheme of fifteen scales must have been intended to provide a scale apiece for the eight notes of the octave and seven notes that came alternately between them; and here we have a scale apiece for the eight notes, and for five of the notes that come between, but not for  $b_2$  and  $e_2$ . And thus Alypius must have gone halfway towards the scheme of Aristides, getting so far as to reject the scales beginning on these notes, but

not far enough to reject the notes themselves. His system is curiously illogical throughout, as befits the product of a period of transition.

The notation of Alypius, as we pointed out before, must be interpreted for intervals of a half or quarter of a tone; and in the tetrachords from *b* to *e* and *e* to *a* the fractions must refer to minor tones. But the tone between *a* and *b* was always a major tone determined by the ratio 9 to 8, for every tetrachord was determined by the ratio 4 to 3, and the product of the three ratios was necessarily 2 to 1. Remembering, then, that the first three intervals are fractions of a major tone, while all the rest are fractions of a minor tone, we find the intervals arranged as follows in order of ascent from *a* to *a*:—two quarters, a half, five quarters, a half, two quarters, a half, five quarters, a half, two quarters, a half. Here are one and twenty intervals; and we have only twelve in our instruments with keys. And the simplest intervals of tones and semitones differ considerably from the corresponding intervals in the modern tempered scale. Thus, for example, Alypius would have intervals of 1·82 and 1·34 for *d-e* and *e-f*, where our tempered scale has intervals of 2·00 and 1·00.

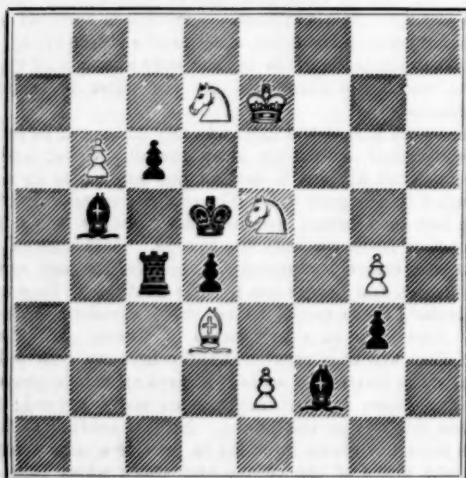
This makes us realize the difficulty of reproducing ancient music. We can easily pick out the notes that answer to our naturals; but, supposing that *a* is fixed, *b* and *e* must always have been a trifle higher than in our tempered scale, and the other four would vary with the tuning. Then, again, we can easily pick out the notes that come between the naturals; but we can never tell, in any particular case, whether the interval should be divided into three thirds, or a half and two quarters, or various other fractions. In short, we cannot determine the exact position of the notes. If we could, we should have some trouble in getting an instrument to express them—no European voice of to-day could do it. And then we should probably find ourselves incapable of noticing such delicate variations. Yet these delicate variations must have been the very essence of the music of the ancients.

#### CHESS NOTES.

IN our cursory review of the printed problems of former days we have given specimens of the good, the bad, and the indifferent, partly by way of showing that composers are on the whole more careful and more ingenious than they used to be in the seventies and eighties, and partly in the hope that a still higher standard of soundness and form may hereafter be insisted on. The solution of the problem by T. Taverner, printed on July 28, is 1. B—Q 3 ... K—Q 4; 2. R—Q Kt 7 ... Any move; 3. Mate accordingly. The connected Black pawns, blocked by the White king and pawn, are necessary to prevent other mates in three (B—Kt 6, B—B 7, R—B 4; or B—Q 3, K—Kt 6, R or B mates). The problem is sound as it stands; but Black's

#### A MATE IN THREE.

BLACK—7 Pieces.



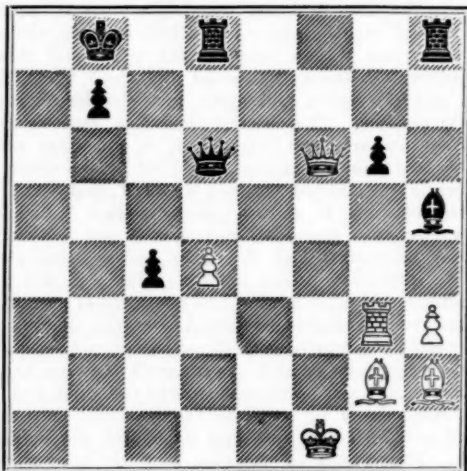
WHITE—7 Pieces.

alternatives are too few. (Solutions by T. G. L., A. C. W., Westdel, C. T. S., Ina, Broad Oak, J. Paul Taylor, and others.)

Interesting positions in a game of chess, or problems proposed for solution, ought always to be illustrated by a diagram. They are twice as amusing and twice as profitable when so illustrated, and readers are saved from the necessity of drawing their own diagrams or taking out their boards and men. If economy of space enters into the consideration, and diagrams are to be dispensed with, there are many ways of making shift without them. The common notation, which has generally been used in these Notes, is a compromise between arbitrary and significant signs of abbreviation, and it is scarcely worth while to attempt any further compression. Here, for instance, is the enunciation of a fine ending played by Mr. B. Vansittart, about nine years ago:—White—P on Q 4, K on KB sq., Q on KB 6, B on K Kt 2, R on K Kt 3, B on KR 2, P on KR 3. Black—K on Q Kt sq., P on Q Kt 2, P on QB 5, R on Q sq., Q on Q 3, P on K Kt 3, R on KR sq., B on KR 4. The corresponding diagram is as follows:—

WHITE TO PLAY AND WIN.

BLACK—8 Pieces.



WHITE—7 Pieces.

Any one could devise alternative methods of stating this position without a diagram. The shortest and simplest, but not on that account the best, is due to the suggestion of Mr. Forsyth. According to this plan, we have to take note of every square on the board, reading the ranks from left to right and successively downwards. Figures are used to denote the number of consecutive blank squares, and single letters to denote the pieces. If we further agree that White's pieces shall be indicated by capitals, and Black's pieces by small letters, the enunciation already given may be expressed in this way:—1 k 1 r 3 r 1 p 9 q 1 Q p 8 b 2 p P 10 R P 6 B B 5 K 2. (If there had been a knight, we should have used the letter N.) There is no making it shorter than that; Mr. Forsyth has said the last word so far as brief enunciation is concerned.

But something more is necessary in order to record the moves in a game; we must have a separate name for every square on the board. Here, again, the common notation is a reasonable compromise. "Q Kt—KB 5" is significant enough to be read off into words; it is a considerable abbreviation, and not too ponderous for ordinary purposes. It is true that the squares have a hundred and twenty-eight names, each having different names for White and for Black. If we were inclined for greater conciseness and less significance, we could adopt the method familiar to German chess-players, which is simply a form of what mathematicians call rectangular co-ordinates. Starting from the lower left corner of the board (QR sq.), we define the position of any piece by reckoning first to the right, *a, b, ..., h*, and then upwards, 1, 2, ..., 8. Thus the square known as White's KB 5 will be *f 5*, and the square known as White's KR 6 will be *h 6*; and the move of a knight from the former square to the latter will be denoted by *f 5—h 6*. We will give the conclusion of Mr. Vansittart's game in this notation:—

*g 3—a 3 a 3—a 8 f 6—a 6 a 6—b 7 (mate).*  
*d 6—h 2' b 8—a 8\* a 8—b 8'*

\* Or, *f 6—e 7 e 7—e 5 (mate).*  
*b 8—c 7' d 8—d 7'*



Of course the mere enumeration of the squares, from 1 to 64, might serve the same end. The printer would need only ten types instead of sixteen, and he would have to set them somewhat less frequently, since nine squares would be represented by single figures.

Another method is worthy of mention because it lends itself easily to the transmission of games by telegraph.

BLACK.

ma	na	pa	ra	sa	ta	wa	za
me	ne	pe	re	se			
mi			ri		ti		
mo		po					
bo							
bi						ki	
be							le
ba	ca	da	fa	ga	ha	ka	la

WHITE.

This is Gringmuth's syllabic code, devised by a Russian player, and now generally used in international matches. The diagram carries its own explanation. The solution of the end-game already mentioned would be expressed in this notation as follows:—Kibirile bimanama timimana mine. Each of White's moves is combined with the next move of Black, so as to make one telegraphic word.

#### MUSICAL CRITICS AND MUSICAL CRITICISM.

THE crusade started some months ago by a now "famous protest" against a peculiar kind of musical criticism still pursues its somewhat fruitless course, and the last two battles fought on the field of this controversy deserve especial notice, if only because the argumentative weapons used are no more confined to a particular instance, but embrace the whole state of musical criticism in this country. The *Fortnightly Review* has served in both instances as arena for the sport, Dr. Villiers Stanford entering the lists first in July, and Mr. John F. Runciman following in the current month of August. To carry the simile further, and to hall-mark both performances at once, we may add that Dr. Villiers Stanford fights with *armes courtoises*, whilst *armes à outrance* seem favourite weapons of Mr. Runciman. What the practical effects of the controversy may turn out to be is not easy to say; the only tangible result of it for the moment being more arguments on the same subject, and more comments—to which we beg to add ours.

Dr. Villiers Stanford is, perhaps, the best qualified man in England to teach the musical critics their business. A composer of eminence, a theorist of rare attainments, an all-round militant musician, and a very able writer, he had every element at his command for the making of a complete indictment; and having summed up the causes of an existing evil, and having qualified or specified this evil, he had it in his power to suggest such reforms for mending a certain state of things as only a man of his exceptional qualifications can do. He has not done so, and more is the pity. The question was a delicate one and required careful handling; Dr. Villiers Stanford has treated it with great tact, and, considering the circumstances, with laudable moderation. But the very care displayed to remain outside vexed questions and to steer clear of personalities—both things absolutely permissible in Dr. Villiers Stanford's instance—have diverted the run of his arguments into a wrong channel, and have weakened the very force of these arguments. There is not the least doubt that the art of musical criticism in England stands in need of entire reform, not only of partial improvement; but whose voice in the matter will be powerful enough if that of a first-rate

expert is used *con sordini*? Every sincere artist, every genuine music lover, and everybody anxious for the honour of his craft would have been only too glad to welcome an authoritative cue.

If we turn to his *exposé*, we find that he sums up the evils of the musical criticism in England under two heads; (1) the feverish haste with which editors of newspapers insist upon the production of critical notices; and (2) the fashion of one critic speaking through the mouths of several newspapers. What has either point to do with the value of this or that musical criticism? We will not deny that both points are emphatic evils; but how will the remedies suggested by Dr. Stanford—a weekly *feuilleton* instead of the hurried daily article, and the adoption of signed articles *versus* the anonymous paragraphs—improve an unsatisfactory state of things? How will a *feuilleton* or a signature teach his business to a musical critic who does not know it? All this is merely toying with the mechanism of the English press in general, and has not the remotest connexion with the real evil of musical criticism here, which is want of proper technical training; but of this more anon.

The above-mentioned evils are put down by Dr. Villiers Stanford as "the two baneful oppressions under which musical criticism in England is now groaning." He might have added a third one—a total want of *esprit de corps* among the musical critics, that lack of good-fellowship which fomented petty squabbles, which splits what should be a friendly and compact body into small spiteful cliques, and which is not only detrimental to the dignity of an influential profession, but prevents the doing of much that would be to the general benefit of all concerned. Mr. John F. Runciman's article is an outcome of this sad state of things, and a typical specimen of the kind. It is not our purpose to discuss Mr. Runciman's prose at great length; but the gist of the fourteen pages over which it is spread seems to be that there are three musical magazines in England worth reading, and that there are hardly any critics in this country whose opinions are not inept, unduly biased, dishonest, or corrupt. Of himself, Mr. Runciman does not give a very precise account, though he is not above mentioning such heroic deeds as refusing to take an editorial hint, *re* "writing up" some concerts, or referring to the unspeakable martyrdom of having his "severely" written notices edited—"castrated" says he. But it may be inferred from the standpoint taken by this gentleman that he, of all critics, is the only one whose opinions are competent, unbiassed, honest, and incorruptible. The rest is "insincere, bought criticism," and the state of musical criticism is further described as one of "broad-spread corruption." And not only do musical critics come in for such wholesale condemnation; it seems, according to the Runciman gospel, that managers and editors of newspapers are responsible for all the greater evils, either encouraging dishonesty or simply coercing one into it. Now you are compelled to write against your opinion for the sake of an advertiser; now violence is done to your feelings, because your editor goes round "sponging" for tickets; here you have to "oblige" because your editor's "spouse" gives musical evenings and pays the artists "with mild and gracious columns in her husband's newspaper," and so on, and so on. It is needless to dwell on the vulgar absurdity and improbability of such innuendos—at least, within an experience of English journalism extending over a period of years, we confess frankly and joyfully to have never come across anything that would warrant our accepting Mr. Runciman's allegations as well founded. But the tone of his whole lucubration may be gathered from the charges levelled at two of the most esteemed musical critics, who are told *carrément* that the favourable articles in the papers with which they are officially connected on two different works composed to their books were written by themselves. *The Veiled Prophet* and *Bethlehem* are the works referred to; and, though we hold no brief for our colleagues assailed by Mr. Runciman, we feel bound to say that he alone of all musical critics in London was not aware at the time that neither the librettist of *The Veiled Prophet* nor the poet of *Bethlehem* was responsible for the accounts of the respective productions in their respective journals.

To sum up, Mr. John F. Runciman has lost a fine opportunity for silence; for, if it is not the exaggerated moderation of Dr. Villiers Stanford that will bring about an era of reforms in musical criticism in England, the end will

certainly not be attained by such excessive abuse and so much tactless scolding as form the manner and matter of Mr. Runciman's onslaught.

A few words more and we shall have done with the subject. A reform in the art of musical criticism is needed—imperatively needed; but the first right step in this direction will only be taken when it is well understood what the qualifications of a musical critic should be, and when the whole method of criticizing is put on a basis of conscientious analysis. It is needless to be uncompromising in the matter; if we cannot have the ideal critics—i.e. musicians who can write—let us have literary men who understand music. Sir George Grove is as good in a way as Schumann or Berlioz. A natural or an acquired taste for an art, and freedom from fads and prejudices, may go a longer way in the matter of opinion than the most scientific criticism when hampered by preconceived ideas. A critic must be prepared to accept every production of human genius with the same objectiveness as a natural and necessary phenomenon, without recipes or dogmas; and he must know that, far beyond the weight of special training, the only power of criticism is in its truthful sincerity. If a work is an inferior one, criticism may kill it by proving that it is so. If the work is great, criticism should assign its proper place, explaining the why and the wherefore of its qualities. But criticism not passed through the retort of frankness, however scientific, is of no value at all. It is this frankness, often brutal, which makes the public the most courted, and perhaps the most competent, of critics; and it is the unsophisticated, unprepared, fanciful, but independent and spontaneous, judgment of an audience which as often as not exercises a decisive victory or defeat in matters of art. Let the critic learn the merit of frankness from the public at large, and find within his own artistic conscience and his special education the other elements for the fulfilment of his mission. *A quand? Et puis encore, à quand?*

#### THE THEATRES.

**L**ITTLE *Christopher Columbus*, the musical medley at the Lyric, possesses the advantages, as well as the demerits, of its kind. The plot does not call for serious consideration, and the original dialogue was as feeble and pointless as even the libretto of comic opera could be. There were, however, melodious and catchy airs, and just those opportunities for the introduction of what, in another place, are known as "turns" which can only be frequently found in a work devoid of dramatic form. As is usual in musical pieces of the sort in present vogue, the story is the least important thing about it; and, in fact, if it were too prominently insisted on, the entertainment would inevitably suffer, since the attention of the audience would be distracted from the efforts of the various performers, humorous and other, which, rather than anything in the shape of incident, mark the progress of the piece. The conspicuous merit of such a composition, of course, is that it allows infinite room for change in its constituent items, as any one interpolated song, dance, or eccentricity is just as germane to the subject as any other. Hence the gradual processes of compression and development which have induced the practice of dividing the run of these compilations into "editions," in each of which the sum of the alterations of the preceding few months is made manifest. In the second edition of *Little Christopher Columbus* the changes are numerous and important. Indeed, as is not unusual in such cases, it is scarcely recognizable in its new form. It reminds us of Blackstone's comparison of a corporation to the river Thames, which is always the Thames, though never at any two moments consisting of the same component parts. The introduction of Miss Florence St. John and Miss Geraldine Ulmar is in itself a noteworthy change. The part formerly taken by Miss May Yohé now yields some scope for Miss St. John's broadening comedy humour as well as for her apparently inexhaustible vocal powers. Mr. J. F. Sheridan shares with Mr. Penley the rare gift among men of playing a comic woman's part without offence. On the other hand, we still incline to the belief that in this, as in his previous performances, the humour is of too rough-and-tumble an order to be introduced into any piece other than a Christmas pantomime, and that even there it is none too grateful. Miss Mabel Love supplies the legitimate dancing, and displays great improvement, especially distinguishing

herself in a gracefully grotesque dance with Mr. Lonnen. The other dancing is represented by a waving of draperies by "La Belle Rose" while she propels a globe on which she stands, and various lights and pictures are thrown upon the whirling gossamer. The movements are fairly graceful considering the difficulty of the evolutions, and the lights and pictures are pretty enough in their way. It is not dancing, however. But then neither is most of what is called "Skirt dancing," which is merely posturing, possibly graceful posturing, but that is all. And then the gauzy draperies of a moving performer do not make a proper background, frame, or setting for a picture.

One popular music-hall craze at a time is generally considered enough, but to-day we have three, unless we are to exclude the Eastender's idyls introduced by Mr. Chevalier as giving way to patriotism and *poses plastiques*. The phenomena of recurrence are nowhere more clearly seen than in the amusements of the people as enjoyed in the music-halls. *Tableaux vivants* were until quite recently practically unknown to the present generation; but in the class of recitation now being given by Mr. Charles Godfrey and others is to be traced much the same spirit, and a sound wholesome spirit it is within proper limits, which just before the Russo-Turkish War made the popularity of Mr. G. H. Macdermott and gave rise to the name of "Jingo." In both cases the form of the revival is distinctly better. It may be that the substantial form of Mr. Godfrey is none too well suited to represent the spare figure of Nelson, or the trim personality of the Duke of Wellington, and that the sentiment is strained and theatrical; but such a spirit is better than no spirit at all, and distinctly makes for good.

#### A FORGOTTEN TOURNAMENT.

"I entreat this House, and I entreat those in another place . . . not to make these wretched Irish tenants the pawns in your party game."—Mr. MORLEY.]

**I** KNOW how the Radical's self-ignorance  
Satirical comment provokes,  
I know the philosopher's small reputation  
For seeing the biggest of jokes.

And I know by what strange Pharisaical wonders  
Of utterance men are amused  
When the statesman on such observations who blunders  
Is Rad and philosopher fused.

But ne'er did I think, in my wildest conjecture,  
To hear the philosopher-Rad,  
With O'Brien before him, deliver a lecture  
Like that we have recently had!

To hear him—while D-I-I insists on the penance  
Of those he has plundered—exclaim,  
"O take pity, my Lords, on those poor Irish tenants;  
Don't treat them as pawns in your game!"

Don't treat them as "pawns" is it? Great Tipperary!  
Don't treat them as *pawns*, did he say?  
Can he wave off the past in this charmingly airy,  
This light irresponsible way?

You'd have thought that his conscience would surely  
have pricked him,  
And, while he discoursed at his ease,  
That the voice of some landless, disconsolate victim  
Had whispered reproaches like these:—

"Don't threat us as pawns? But, bedad, did ye carry  
That thought in your mind, Misther J-hn,  
Whan the bowld agitators sat down wid Sm-th B-rry  
To chiss, but a few years agone?"

"O tell me, me jool, does your mimory's ambit  
The circumstance fail to retain  
That they based their attack on that ruinous gambit  
We knew as the Plan of Campaign?"

"Ah, thin! sure it might have been well to remind us  
That there would be wigs on the green  
When we pawns, wid a couple of bishops behind us,  
Gave timp'rary check to the Queen.



"Did ye caution us, darlint, through all the wild  
wastle,  
Or give us the laste little hint,  
Till the pawns that were afther defoying the Castle  
Were tuk for not payin' the rint ?

"Ah, begorra ! they tuk us ? Yes, mother o' Moses,  
They swep' us clane out of the shtroife,  
And I'll niver again, sor, whoever proposes,  
Play chiss for the rest of me loife !

"Pawns is it ? one party's enough to have sould us,  
We'd play for ourselves, if resthored ;  
But, ah ! Misther M-r-ly, I wish you had tould us  
Before we were swep' from the board !"

## REVIEWS.

### SOME ASPECTS OF DISESTABLISHMENT.

*Sm: Aspects of Disestablishment—Essays by Clergymen of the Church of England.* Edited by H. C. Shuttleworth, Rector of St. Nicholas Cole Abbey, Professor of Pastoral and Liturgical Theology in King's College, London. London: Innes & Co. 1894.

THERE is a good deal less of the "wild curatry" which has characterized certain ecclesiastical publications in the book before us than in some volumes that we have recently reviewed; and we are bound to confess that it gains considerably by the exclusion of the lay element. No English Churchman will ever contest the right of the laity to express, or the importance of their expressing, views on Church matters. But the value of laymen's, as of other contributions, to this as to any other subject, is somewhat conditioned by the knowledge of the writers. So long as the old-fashioned rule prevailed that a man should know something of the subject of which he indited, it really did not much matter whether he was a professional expert or not. But we have changed all that, and it is not unkind or unjust to say that some of our *Clamantes*, some of our *Isocrats* recently, would, in the Palace of Ideal Justice, have had something to cry for, and have found that isopathy may sometimes be the result of isocracy without isomathy. We cannot say that, even among the writers in this volume, some rueful spectacles might not be exhibited under a similar dispensation; we shall hope by-and-bye to administer a little healthy discipline ourselves. But still, as a rule, a man cannot get through a University course, supplemented possibly by a theological college, and certainly by an appearance before the examining chaplain, without picking up some vague and distant glimmerings of the matter in hand. Now you may be an "illustrated poet" and an industrious journalist and a graceful designer, and even a Member of Parliament, without so much as knowing the difference between St. Cyril of Alexandria and St. Cyril of Jerusalem, and with a vague idea that "investitures" (if you ever heard of them) is another word for vestments.

The essays in this volume are contributed by Mr. Percy Dearmer, Mr. Thomas Hancock, Mr. R. C. Fillingham, Mr. G. S. Reaney, Mr. Philip Peach, and the Editor. We are a little surprised to find Mr. Hancock in this particular galley, and more surprised to find him describing himself as "a Catholic, a Socialist, and a Democrat." Men of ability, learning, and honesty have over and over again shown themselves able to hold inconsistent beliefs. But it has always been a difficult problem to us how a man can be a Catholic and a Democrat, inasmuch as "Obey those who are set over you" has always been one of the "Thou Shalts" of Catholicism and the "Thou Shalt Nots" of Democracy. And we find it not much more easy, as old logicians, to construct, *per genus et differentiam*, the idea of a Catholic Socialist, when we remember how a certain Apostle, whose dicta Catholics are bound to reverence, in a transaction which has sometimes been appealed to by Socialists, made use of the words "Whiles it remained was it not thine own ? and after it was sold, was it not in thine own power ?" Furthermore, we hardly think that the "female of a sour countenance holding in her left hand a serpent, and in her right a hook baited with sundry formulæ," would relax that sourness or spare the serpent and the hook after examining Mr. Hancock's examination of the phrase "robbing God" in reference to the present Disestablishment scheme in Wales. But we are all the more grateful to Mr. Hancock (inasmuch as it is evident that he approaches the question from a very different standpoint from ours) for the examination of Welsh Disestablishment under the Commonwealth which (out of a fulness of knowledge certainly not surpassed by any man in England) he has here given.

And we thank him for the conclusion of his essay (which we here quote) with a heartiness surpassing any with which we could greet a similar utterance from any anti-Socialist and anti-Democratic Churchman like ourselves:—

"I can recollect in our history no so-called "nationalization" of Church property, no disestablishment and disendowment, which did not prove in the end to be a loss and robbery of the poor, the humble, and the meek, and to be a gain only to the rich, the mighty, and the pushing. I know no reason for imagining that any disestablishment now proposed by one of our two nation-dividing parties can end otherwise than of old. The poor here and there may get a farthing; the hundreds and thousands of pounds will go, as they always hitherto have gone, to the account of the pushing jobbers, contractors, and horde of partisans who have to be paid for their party services."

For a somewhat similar reason, we shall not dwell much on Mr. Reaney's "Case against Disestablishment," leaving it to produce its effect on fair readers, who will doubtless be aware, or who may find it useful to be reminded, that Mr. Reaney occupies the interesting position of a once very popular and successful Dissenting minister, who conquered the prejudices of his class, and sought Orders in the Church.

Nor shall we have much to say of Mr. Peach, who has a scheme for rearranging the Church with legally constituted Diocesan Councils, Parish Councils, veto of parishioners on appointment of parson, and so forth. When a man merely adopts the catch-schemes and catch-words ("frankly democratic basis," and the like) of the hour, he may be respectable, but is not important. It is enough to say that, when the Church of England is constituted on the lines indicated by Mr. Peach, some of us will, like the Quaker in the story, "meet by ourselves in our own house." There have been many interpretations of "the gates of hell"; but, when the "fallacy of fifty-one and forty-nine" has penetrated into the Church of Christ, which should know neither majority nor minority, then we think that these gates, whatever they are, may be said to have prevailed.

We like Professor Shuttleworth better here than we have been in the habit of liking him. Neither his premisses nor his conclusions, generally speaking, are ours; but, when we meet a man who writes of "the inestimable possession of a great historic position," we know that in this respect, at any rate, he is not far from the truth. He has hold of the clue; and if he lets it go now and then, there is hope that he will recover it. Moreover, he tells an admirable story, which is as good as volumes on the subject:—

"The writer was present, a few years since, at a public conference between Churchmen and Nonconformists held in the City Temple. One of the Church speakers quoted figures from this return referring to the amount spent upon the fabric of the cathedrals. The audience, consisting mainly of Nonconformists, greeted the statement with loud cries of "Shame!" Did they mean that the Church ought not to have maintained these noble buildings upon a scale proportionate to their design and purpose? At the least the incident made it clear that such an audience could scarcely worship with comfort in an average Anglican cathedral."

But Mr. Shuttleworth is too charitable. He need not have been puzzled as to what they "meant." They meant exactly what a certain other person meant when he asked why a certain ointment was not sold for three hundred pence.

We have, however, left the jewels of the collection to the last, though one of them is set in the forefront of the book. We know nothing of the Reverend Percy Dearmer; but, as he is B.A. only, we trust he is young. The Rev. R. C. Fillingham is known to us as the writer of occasional letters, to the *Daily News* chiefly, bemoaning the wickedness of Tory parsons who turn the cold shoulder on good Gladstonian brethren. But they are both precious vessels. Mr. Percy Dearmer has the richer style of the two. From him we learn how "the Church of England has allowed her priests to become the chaplains and her churches the property of the most haughty and selfish aristocracy that has ever cursed this country of ours." (N.B. How many aristocracies have cursed it?) We hear of "an oligarchy of bishops who, from the middle of the fourteenth century to the middle of the nineteenth, sprang mainly from the aristocracy," and we jot down as a few samples:—Wykeham, son of a yeoman or nobody; Wolsey, of a grazier; Latimer, of a tenant farmer; Parker, of a dyer and cleaner; Laud, of a clothier; Butler, of a draper. ("If Massa Dearmer want *mau*," as Gumbo says in *The Virginians*, he can have plenty.) We observe, with sincere sympathy, that "there are few things so distressing to a loyal Catholic as to observe the intellects, methods, and ideals of the knot of second-rate Conservatives who regard themselves, with unconscious impertinence, as the representatives of the Church in

Parliament," whereas, if unjust laws were repealed, the Reverend Percy Dearmer would be eligible. We burn with indignation at the little anecdote that Mr. Dearmer was once asked to give lectures on Church History at Oxford, on condition that he kept his social views to himself; but, considering that little remark about the bishops, we should ourselves have stipulated that Mr. Dearmer should keep his views of history to himself. We observe a glowing reference to "the hoped for hundred per cent. tax on land." And we breathe again when we find that the Reverend Percy Dearmer is extremely anxious that the question of Disestablishment should be postponed for a decade or two. 'Tis at least a respite; and coming from one who has, he tells us, "endeavoured to show that both sides are hopelessly prejudiced and partisan," it will no doubt have weight with both. Not least weight, perhaps, with those who reflect that Disestablishment would not merely unmuzzle altogether, but would vastly increase the chances of professional success for, persons of the mild wisdom, the shrinking modesty, and the knowledge equally remarkable for extent, correctness, and freedom from bumptiousness, here displayed by the Reverend Percy Dearmer.

Mr. Fillingham is not nearly so amusing as Mr. Dearmer, which is perhaps due in part to the fact that he is much shorter. But he has the advantage even of Mr. Dearmer in bumptious ignorance. Mr. Dearmer, to do him justice, has grasped the historic continuity of the Church of England. Here is the way, equally graceful and accurate, in which Mr. Fillingham treats that subject:—

'We hold our endowments simply because Parliament took them away—the bulk of them—from other people; and so we cannot in common honesty object if such a proceeding is renewed at our expense. If we think that Parliament has no right to touch our revenues, then I think we ought, as a proof of the sincerity of our belief, to hand over our cathedrals, our pre-Reformation churches, all their revenues, and all the arrears, with compound interest, to the Roman Catholic body at once.

'But then some one starts, and exclaims about the "continuity of the Church of England." Ah, that blessed word "Mesopotamia!" To a plain man, the theory of the continuity of the Church of England is the most illogical fiction that ever emanated from the human brain. *A person who confounds the Church before the Reformation with the Church after the Reformation is capable of picking his teeth with a pickaxe, and confounding it with a toothpick.* Can it be seriously maintained that Whitgift the Calvinist was a member of the same Church as Bonner the Papist? Can it be thought that the Church of the Council of Trent is identical with the Church of the Lambeth Articles?'

The italicized sentence needs no further comment than our italics, and we shall not dwell on the last, though it seems to imply a belief on Mr. Fillingham's part that the Council of Trent came before the Reformation. But we shall leave him to his editor, who, good, easy man, thinks that "few will be found to repeat the old fallacy about a 'new Church' founded by Henry VIII." He had not read his contributor, and his state was the more gracious. For Mr. Fillingham's "Case for Disestablishment" consists simply of a string of Liberatorist assertions which he puts forth, not as his own beliefs merely, but as those of "the ordinary man," "the man in the street." Now we are probably in at least as good a position for ascertaining these opinions as the Rev. R. C. Fillingham. And we can only say that the assertion that the ordinary man thinks that the Established Church is "unfair," "unwarrantable," "disadvantageous to the human race" (whatever that means), and so forth, is an impudent begging of the question, and puts the man who makes it out of court as a disputant. Nobody, we suppose, who really knows would assert in the ordinary man any wild devotion to the Establishment as an Establishment. As a general rule, the ordinary man takes it as an accomplished fact, like so many others. When he goes further, he may sometimes be induced by crotchet, by covetousness, or by the mere desire for a change, to take the side opposed to it. He most certainly is not against it in anything like a majority even of this small minority of his class. But we ought not to waste so much time on Mr. Fillingham. A man who, approaching the infinitely complicated and difficult question of patronage, says—"It must be admitted that it is all wrong in our Church; and will never be improved while she remains connected with the State," is unworthy of that argument, the very nature of which he does not understand. We should be sorry to urge *noscitur a sociis* too hardly against the other contributors to *Some Aspects of Disestablishment*. But if he is the best advocate for Disestablishment that they can find, the Church is certainly in no great danger.

## RECENT VERSE.

- A Lover's Diary.* By Gilbert Parker. Cambridge and Chicago: Stone & Kimball; London: Methuen & Co. 1894.  
*Sonnets of the Wingless Hours.* By Eugene Lee-Hamilton. London: Elliot Stock. 1894.  
*Anthems of Quental: Sixty-four Sonnets.* Englished by Edgar Prestage. London: David Nutt. 1894.  
*The Sphinx.* By Oscar Wilde. With Decorations by Charles Ricketts. London: Mathews & Lane. 1894.  
*Poems.* By Langdon Elwyn Mitchell. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin, & Co. 1894.  
*Quorsum?* By Frederick W. Ragg, M.A. London: Rivington, Percival & Co. 1894.  
*Songs from Dreamland.* By May Kendall. London: Longmans & Co. 1894.  
*Confessions of a Poet.* By F. Harald Williams. London: Hutchinson & Co. 1894.

TRULY remarkable is the persistency of the sonnet in English. From the Elizabethan renaissance to the present day it has proved the most prevailing of metrical forms. Almost all poets, great and small, and all versers of every degree of facility, have written sonnets. The tribe of Bowles has multiplied apace. How shall we account for this universal attraction? Short is the sonnet; but is it easy? Decidedly not. A living writer has declared "the rigid sonnet" to be the most difficult of all compositions in verse, and the example of poets, not to mention the testimony of poets, through three centuries may be said to confirm this view. Certainly the more fiery of poets—the men who blotted nothing, the men who had more of the bard's inspiration than of the artist's temperament—have shown themselves inexpert in the sonnet. They are impatient of the restrictions of the form and its set alternations of rhyme. The sonnets of Shakespeare are no exception. It is significant that they observe not the standard of Petrarch. Collectively they are properly regarded as a poem in which the modified sonnet-form of Shakespeare's choice is used as a stanza. There is no sense of rigidity in these sonnets. But if Burns had been a poet of sonnets, or if Scott had been, it is inconceivable that their sonnets should have been worthy to rank with those of Milton, or Wordsworth, or Keats. Should there be announced a discovery of sonnets by Ben Jonson, no competent judge would expect to find them in any sense comparable in full-orbed majesty of thought and unity to Drummond's sonnets. In drama no one was more of an artist, or stricter in the observance of law and order, than Ben Jonson; but he was, as his Masques attest, one of the most daring and original of singers. He it was who likened the sonnet to the bed of Procrustes, and an instrument of torture it has proved in many hands. Byron's somewhat pettish depreciation of this metrical form is not without a touch of humour. Like Coleridge and Shelley, he wrote but one sonnet that is notable, and this, like theirs, is something of a *tour de force*, or exercise, that betrays the conscious effort of the writer. The form was uncongenial to these poets. That is the fair view of the matter. We must not assume that they were daunted by the difficulties of the enterprise. Since, however, so many of the great poets have failed in the sonnet—have failed, that is to say, when judged by their triumphs in other ways—the still continued popularity of the sonnet is indeed striking. One source of this popularity—perhaps the principal source—is the example of Petrarch—an example emulated by Watson, Spenser, Constable, and a host of others of old, and by Mrs. Browning and Rossetti in recent times.

When love is the theme, and the lover is the medium of poetic expression, as in the beautiful little book of the De Vinne press that contains Mr. Gilbert Parker's sonnets, the poet enjoys comparative freedom and a wide field. Though each of the sonnets of his series, or sequence, should be self-contained, it is not exacted of him that all alike shall be of equal merit; just as no one expects to find all the stanzas of a long poem of unvarying excellence. The writer of a sequence is in a far easier position than the writer of the occasional sonnet. He does not run the risk of rigidity. He may be expansive, he can elaborate, he may economize his thought, varying it in Protean fashion as a musician works out a leading *motif*. He may even be iterative, with ingenuity and cumulative art. Where there is sequence there is context; thus he is not liable to the arbitrary detachment of some one sonnet for separate judgment, but may plead the solidarity of the whole. When we say that these and other advantages of the sonnet-series recur to us with renewed force in reading *A Lover's Diary*, we recognize Mr. Parker's effective use of the sonnet in what he terms "songs in sequence." Love-sonnets, should they treat of the old theme—"When lovers parted grow broken-hearted and all hopes thwarted"—are apt to degenerate towards mere morbid or sickly lament. This is not true of *A Lover's Diary*. A manly and chivalrous tone, the joy



of battling with calamity, and the "faith" that is "large in time," characterize these sonnets. Mr. Parker's sonnet-structure may be described as of three quatrains, independently rhymed, with a concluding couplet. Here and there may be observed a tendency to employ a weak rhyme, as in this opening of a sonnet (p. 41):—

Art's use: what is it but to touch the springs  
Of nature? But to hold a torch up for  
Humanity in Life's large corridor,  
To guide the feet of peasants and of kings!

The opposite and more common fault, of false emphasis in rhyming, is scarcely to be noted in the whole series. For reasons already stated, we do not quote any single specimen of Mr. Parker's sonnets. All who are interested in the subject will find not a little that is interesting and suggestive in the author's treatment of the sonnet in sequence.

Mr. Lee-Hamilton follows the model of Petrarch. His sonnets show careful finish, for the most part, and no small skill—

I wrought them like a targe of hammered gold  
On which all Troy is battling round and round;  
Or Circe's cup, embossed with snakes that wound  
Through buds and myrtles, fold on scaly fold.

The description is not inapt. "I know not in what metal I have wrought," the poet adds, "But if it is of gold it will not rust." And gold there is, decidedly, the gold of fancy; and the vein is worked with charming results and in an artistic spirit. We would instance the delightful three sonnets on "Elfin skating," the two on the "Death of Puck," and that on "Fireflies," as excellent examples of the lighter and more playful manifestations of the poet's fancy. Passing from these to the admirable sonnets suggested by the works of Italian sculptors and painters, or by relics of an older world of art, Mr. Lee-Hamilton's endowment and range in fancy are found to be considerable indeed. The sonnet on Leonardo's "Medusa's Head" is not unworthy of comparison with Shelley's wonderful poems, and those on Signorelli's frescoes, "On a surf-rolled torso of Venus," and on the Venus of Milo, rightly regarded as a Victory, show an intensity of feeling that moves us to instant response. Despite the afflicting circumstances of the poet's lot, only too sensitively proclaimed in some of the sonnets collectively styled "A Wheeled Bed," Mr. Lee-Hamilton may fairly say with Coleridge, "Poetry is its own exceeding great reward." If the "Fairy Godmothers" of his sonnet were, as he puts it, "wicked sprites and envious elves," the one good elf whose gift was the "single drop of Poesy's wine of gold" gave him also the still more precious power of the miraculous increase of the single drop, as these sonnets prove—"the little golden drop is in them all."

Mr. Prestage, the translator of that singular book, the *Letters of a Portuguese Nun*, introduces to the English reader a writer who had little or nothing in common with Marianna Alcoforado in his selection from the sonnets of Anthero de Quental, the Portuguese poet, originally collected and published by Senhor Oliveira Martins in 1880, and since translated wholly or in part into German, French, Italian, Spanish, and other languages. To the sonnets, here translated, is prefixed an autobiographical letter to Dr. Storck, the poet's German translator, which is a remarkable piece of self-analysis and of frank self-criticism. Tossed to and fro on every wind of doctrine, like an arkless bird on the waste of controversial waters, the Portuguese poet seems to have been possessed of a capacity for self-torture that knew no limits. There are suggestions in the last section of the sonnets that he had arrived at some stable ground, though his melancholy end seems to contradict this view. Mr. Prestage calls Quental "a Portuguese Heine." Perhaps these sonnets, with their burden of gloom and their melodious laments, show him more clearly as of the kindred of Leopardi. When Mr. Prestage speaks of him as a Mystic and a Philosopher, and "not a mere Parnassian," he probably means no more than this, that Quental did not write sonnets in a Petrarchian humour. That he was a poet, and a poet whose inspiration was decidedly individual, will be clear to every reader of these translations. With him, as he remarks, the writing of poetry was something quite involuntary, and the sincerity of the sonnets is not their least striking quality. They leave an impression of storm and strife, merging into a dreary profundity of gloom that can hardly be matched in modern literature.

Mr. Oscar Wilde's soliloquy with a sphinx is put forth with such circumstances of strangeness as ingenuity might devise and as are becoming to the theme. It is printed in all the glory of "small caps," and the metrical form, which is a compact little stanza, as ordinary poets use it, is made to fit the handsome proportions of the page by a novel method of gauging that serves to attract, if not to bewitch, the eye. With these

devices the decorative designs of Mr. Charles Ricketts cleverly assimilate. They move a languid curiosity and are singularly unimpressive—weak essays in the manner of Blake, notwithstanding. Mr. Wilde's poem is profusely embellished with tropical phrase, and a very museum of historical and archaeological allusion. But the lavish display is marred somewhat by a sad indiscretion of epithet. The poet, when he has done well, will not leave well alone. He fails, also, to establish the mystery and terror of the situation, as is so effectively done by Poe in the poem which is strongly suggested by Mr. Wilde's opening verses. Thus he is open to the charge of being too easy and familiar. We feel he can only too safely address questions to the Sphinx that might have gravelled Oedipus, and insinuate ill of her antecedents, and finally hurl insults at her, since he is secure from retaliation. Her "curving claws" and "velvet paws," her "horrible and heavy breath," the "cushions" of her satin eyes, her pulse of poisonous melodies, are nothing but the stage "properties" of the poet.

Mr. Langdon Mitchell's *Poems* have certain merits that are by no means common in these days. The fashioning of the poem is not the all-important object with Mr. Mitchell, and it is not the vestiture, but the material he works in, that chiefly concerns him. He has the gifts of the story-teller and the maker of apologies. The terseness and point of the moral in such examples as "The Apple Tree" and "The Child and the Twilight" recall Cowper and La Fontaine. The longest poem in the volume—it bears the simple title "A Tale"—is finely imagined, and told with excellent art. It is the story of a deserter during the Secession War, who returns to his home in one of the Northern States, secretly, to the shame of his mother, who will not receive him into her house yet does not wholly reject him. The young man is simply sick with disillusion, wearied with the routine and ennui of a campaign that is nothing but a tedious waiting game. He went forth to delight him in the pomp and circumstance of glorious war, and he deserts through sheer disenchantment, scarcely conscious of the dishonour of his act and how it appears to his mother. The situation, with the diverse points of view of mother and son, is skilfully presented.

*Quorum?* is a long poem in blank, in which there is little or no action, but much discourse concerning truth, reason, and other momentous abstractions. A priest, a science-lover, a logician to mathematical problems prone, a poet and dreamer who loves at first sight, as is fit, with other persons, share in these devious talks, which occur for the most part in sublime mountain scenery, the description of which serves as an effective foil to the philosophic themes. There is also a philosopher:—

Wake, man of massive brow and raven hair,  
And lip of easy strength, and eye that danced  
In light, respondent unto word of life,  
Philosophy and mind his heart's delight.

Mr. Ragg's poem is of the family of Wordsworth's *Excursion*. Passages might be cited that show a certain mastery of blank verse; but the poem as a whole lacks variety of modulation, and Mr. Ragg cannot be said to have escaped the penalty which all poets pay, save one or two in a century, who deliberately eschew what is not merely a chief ornament of English poetry, but the source of its most magical triumphs. Rhyme, as pedants insist, may not be essential to poetry, but the example of all our poets, Milton not excepted, proves that it is—what blank verse is not—of the natural language of the poet.

Miss May Kendall's pleasant gift of humour we have before now recognized, and it has been not unduly acknowledged in other quarters. But the quality of her humour is somewhat strained, beaten out to the utmost tenuity, we might say, in many of the songs in her new volume, such as the "Songs of the City." The last two sections of the book, however, contain some good specimens of Miss Kendall's old sprightly style. Those who are concerned just now with the planet Mars, and what his "canals" may be, and whether his Alps are Alps and covered with snow, will be delighted with the whimsical "Fatal Advertisements." "Too many Stars," also, is delightful, and excellent are "Metempsychosis," "Journeying," and "The Ride."

We cannot say we have read every one of the some five hundred pages of verse in which Mr. Harold Williams puts forth his *Confessions*, but we have dutifully read, as bidden by the author, "The Light of the Amethyst" and "The Pilgrim of Eternity," with other verses not especially commended to us in the preface. These examples show very considerable facility in verse-making, but we cannot say that thought and inspiration of the poetic order make a stable presence in them. However, we are disposed to agree with Mr. Lewis Morris, cited in the "opinions of the press," that the "method" of Mr. Williams seems to be very much his own.

## THE ASCENT OF MAN.

*The Lowell Lectures on the Ascent of Man.* By Henry Drummond. London: Hodder & Stoughton. 1894.

IT is conceivable that a world somewhat wearied of the din of the strife of Evolutionists may be inclined to address the whole body evolutionary—Darwinian, Weismannian, and so forth—like another Elwood to another Milton, in these terms:—"You have had much to say of the Descent of Man; what have you to say of the Ascent of Man?" We are all Evolutionists, more or less, now. Mr. Henry Drummond is an Evolutionist. In the *Lowell Lectures* he has anticipated the demand of Elwood. He has put forth a scheme, after the approved methods of Evolutionists, of a Paradise Regained which shall inspire and hearten all who regard the Darwinian gospel, as its disciples, with no touch of irony, term it, as nothing but the evangel of a ruined Paradise. In the strict Darwinian sense, the Descent of Man implies also the Ascent of Man. To the plain man these terms are opposed. Descent is a growing downwards, and is retrograde; ascent is a progress upwards and onwards. Mr. Drummond has a diligent regard of the plain man. He conducts his argument by a series of ascending stages, and when all these stages are surmounted he is to be noted standing on the evolutionary Pisgah, with the armies of purblind Evolutionists of the stern biological kind battling beneath, and beyond him the illimitable vista of ascent that remains for achievement. At this point of culmination Mr. Drummond stands, erect, intrepid, prophetic, inspired, with the burning language of hope and aspiration on his lips. From this stage of his discourse the hymn of ecstasy arises in "ever-higher circles" of eloquent conviction. But for one little initial error in their ways, all evolutionists might take their stand with him, join in the hymn, and live together like brethren in unity. This is the situation. "Up to this time," says Mr. Drummond, "no word has been spoken to reconcile Christianity with Evolution, or Evolution with Christianity. And why? Because the two are one." The phrase "up to this time" must refer, we take it, to this present volume; for no one knows better than Mr. Drummond that a good deal has been spoken, and written, of this species of reconciliation during the last ten years or so. Be this as it may, the final stage of the book brings us to this high place—the pure serene atmosphere of reconciliation—whence Mr. Drummond is able to indicate to all and sundry "the universal religion—a religion congruous with the whole past of Man, at one with Nature, and with a working creed which Science could accept." We do not propose to deal with every step of his ingenious argument, since it is hardly possible here, and by no means necessary. It is worked out with characteristic ardour and courage. The technical quality of the book is of a high order. In none of his works is Mr. Drummond's literary skill more strikingly manifested. The style—metaphorical, allusive, picturesque—has even more of the writer's wonted grace and facility, and his command of analogy has never been employed with better effect, and productive of more varied and suggestive illustrations. Whether or not the significance and importance of the initial error be admitted, it is impossible to deny the brilliant art with which the superstructure is raised.

"The root of the error," says Mr. Drummond, "lies, indirectly rather than directly, in Mr. Darwin." From the date of the publication of the *Origin of Species* the "principle of the Struggle for Life"—or what Darwin called the struggle for existence—became accepted everywhere. "So careless was Mr. Darwin's emphasis upon this factor, and so masterful his influence, that after the first sharp conflict even the controversy died down." It may be noted here that further on, in his examination of the progress of Darwinian doctrines, Mr. Drummond shows that controversy on this point has not died down, and never did die down. However, he proceeds:—"With scarce a challenge, the Struggle for Life became accepted by the scientific world as the governing factor in development, and the drama of Evolution was made to hinge upon its action." Now the Struggle for Life, he insists, is in reality not the chief agent in the evolutionary process. It is but the "villain" of the drama, and, like the villain of the piece, its function is to "react on the other players for higher ends." There is, in fact, a second factor, and it is through missing this factor altogether that the followers of Darwin have misrepresented Evolution. Thus it has chanced that "Evolution was given to the modern world out of focus, was first seen by it out of focus"—a natural consequence, we might say, of the previous fact—"and has remained out of focus to the present hour." This missing factor plays an equally important part with the so-called "Villain"—even from the beginning; while, in the later progress of man's ascent, it assumes a sovereignty before which that other factor sinks into insignificance. The missing factor is, in plain terms, the "Struggle for the Life of Others"; and, lest some should mis-

conceive the phrase as synonymous with "Nature, red in tooth and claw," he expressly admits that it is none other than "Altruism." Mr. Drummond marvels that this second form of struggle should have escaped the evolutionists. Both are intimately related to the two chief functions of all living things—Nutrition and Reproduction. The first of these two functions is the basis of the Struggle for Life. The second is the basis of the Struggle for the Life of Others. You cannot, Mr. Drummond argues, accept the one as all-important and deny, or ignore, the other. Yet, as he puts it, "in constructing the fabric of Evolution the one has been taken, the other left." These two laws of Struggle are to be regarded, if we rightly interpret Mr. Drummond's "Introduction," as coequal factors from the very dawn of life. Yet he admits a "later progress" in the ascent of man when the struggle that makes for altruism is of superior importance. In this he seems to be in accord with the generally current view of altruism. The word, and the thing implied, are comparatively modern; dating from the Christian era, and become a factor in ethics within that period. Such, we conceive, is the general opinion, nor is it the merely popular view of altruism. Mr. Benjamin Kidd, whose *Social Evolution* is quoted by Mr. Drummond, writes of "the motive force" of modern social development as something originating in "the fund of altruistic feeling with which our civilization has become equipped." Altruistic feeling is here equivalent to a sentiment, and a sentiment cannot be a law, though it may express a law. Mr. Kidd plainly implies that there must have been a time when the fund was non-existent. Mr. Drummond's comment on the passage runs thus:—"But we shall endeavour to show this fund of altruistic feeling has been slowly funded in the race by Nature, or through Nature, and as the direct and inevitable result of that struggle for the Life of Others which has been from all time a condition of existence." Now, if "altruism" be but another name for the "Struggle for the Life of Others," altruism is here declared to be nothing but the inevitable result of itself. The inference is, clearly enough, that altruism is not of modern date—is, indeed, of no date whatever, historically speaking. Both forms of Struggle start from the same protoplasm, according to Mr. Drummond, and both have run on from a common starting point "into the ethical sphere" (p. 30). Yet one of these two laws, of like origin, and coeval in time, assumes sovereignty over the other at a certain "later progress" of man's ascent. Why should this be? Mr. Drummond affirms that the struggle for the life of others is waxing, the struggle for life is waning. Assuming that this is true, why should it be so? Mr. Drummond does not satisfy us on this crucial point. There is historical evidence that the sovereignty assumed by the one form of struggle over the other was comparatively sudden, and attained in modern times. The theory of the slow evolution of the altruistic struggle from Mr. Drummond's primordial fund is refuted by the history of Christianity. It is through Christianity that what Mr. Drummond calls the "other-regarding function"—which expresses the very spirit of the Christian religion—has attained the sovereignty he ascribes to it. Hence we are forced to conclude that the Struggle for the Life of Others, Altruism, and the "other-regarding function" are not various names for one and the same thing. In a word, the law and the sentiment are distinct. We cannot say that Mr. Drummond has proved the evolution of the sentiment from the law he discovers in the principle of the Struggle for the Life of Others as related to the function of reproduction.

## MEMORANDA DE PARLIAMENTO.

*Memoranda de Parlamento* (Records of the Parliament holden at Westminster, A.D. 1305). Edited by F. W. Maitland. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode.

ALL Englishmen who cherish a pious regard for their own national history will be inclined to discern a special providence in the remarkable preservation of that unique Parliament roll which is now for the first time printed in its entirety. We say "in its entirety," because Mr. Maitland reminds us that parts of this roll, which is an unusually long one, and unusually perfect, had already been included in the "Vetus Codex," whose curious history he has so excellently summarized. Many students are aware that we have among us no hand more competent than his, probably none so competent, for the right orientation and complete elucidation of the meaning and contents of such a document. Mrs. Green's recent use of the two volumes which he edited for the Selden Society has given us some hint how much the sincere students of our English institutions, local and political, already owe, and are long likely to owe, to his labours. His "introduc-



tion" to the present volume shows that he is also a master of the craft of narration. The romantic history of the long burial and ultimate resurrection of this precious document, which was found not in one piece, but in many pieces, is most clearly and fascinatingly put before us, and with the least possible profusion of words. The editor is a workman who takes his readers familiarly into his workshop, tells them frankly what difficulties he cannot yet solve, as well as what he can, exhibits and characterizes all the materials and tools with which he goes to work, and explains his method, and why he adopts it.

Mr. Maitland does not mention, though we presume he is aware of it, that the name of "William Ryley, junr., 1647"—the last in his list of the supposed private owners of the "Vetus Codex," and who was its publisher in 1661—frequently occurs in the Calendar of State Papers of Cromwell's Protectorate. He was not only Keeper of the Records in the Tower, but was described in 1655 as "Norroy King-at-Arms," a title which itself bore witness to the resolute Conservatism of Englishmen, and their determination to hold as fast as possible to national tradition and precedent under the most revolutionary outward changes. Ryley's heraldic and genealogical knowledge must have been prodigious and valued; we find Englishmen who had settled on the Continent applying to him for the ancient history of their families.

The year 1305, the date of this Lenten Parliament, suggests to us at once the victories of the great King Edward I. in Scotland in the foregoing year. It was a Parliament which was certain to have plenty of Scottish business before it. A goodly proportion of the volume is occupied with the "Petitiones Scotie" in this Parliament, the responses made to the several petitions, and the editor's elucidations from the stupendous mass of documents at the Record Office known as "Ancient Petitions," which he prints in their curious French. Mr. Maitland is most emphatic upon the important distinction that all the petitions, whether English, Scottish, or Irish, were not petitions to Parliament, but in Parliament. They were petitions to the King, or to the King and his Council. Parliament had not yet come to be, so to speak, a "petitionable" body. So it is with the Gascon petitions, chiefly from wine merchants in Aquitaine, which Mr. Maitland prints in the appendix; they are all addressed "A nostre seigneur le Roy," or "le Rey," and mostly to the King "e son Conseil." Special Committees of "auditors" were appointed by the King to receive and answer such petitions from the Gascon folk as could be answered without the King. He has also put into the appendix a few excerpts from the Gascon Roll of 1305, which illustrate what must have been an important work in this Parliament—a provision for the Empire by the appointment of "a new Gascon, or rather Aquitanian, Ministry." There was a Committee for Irish petitions, and another for Scottish petitions; but "so far as we know," says Mr. Maitland, "for the English petitions no auditors were expressly appointed." Ten years later, under Edward II., there were three such Committees of auditors; one for England, a second for Gascony and the Isles, a third for Wales, Ireland, and Scotland. The English Committee consisted of three bishops, two barons, a justice, a baron of the Exchequer, and a clerk of the Chancery. Some petitions were expressly "reserved for the King's eye or ear," others for the plenary meetings of the Council.

The petitions carry us into the midst of English political, social, and ecclesiastical life at the opening of the fourteenth century, and so have an interest quite apart from their value as illustrations of the development of our Parliament. We see how much political work was then done upon Sundays in England, as it still is in the other Christian lands of Europe. A petition from Ranulph, son of Hugo le Mareschal (varied in the French as Randolph), for remedy against the rector of Aescherugge, which is indorsed "Coram Rege," is further noted, after the customary "Irr" (irrotulatus), "Iste xxij [petitiones] expeditus sunt coram Rege die dominica prima Quadragesime." Edward I. not only answered all these thirty-two petitions on one Sunday, but he had opened the Parliament on a Sunday, February 28, "die dominica proxima post festum S. Mathie Apostoli." When James I. said to his son, "You must be the poor man's King," he was standing upon the traditions of the English throne. In more than one instance, notably in the petition of the "pauperes burgenses" of Newcastle-on-Tyne to the King for remedy against the "divites burgenses ejusdem villæ," we have a glimpse of the English poor looking toward their King as their natural and official "tribune," if we may use so abused a word. There is also a "petitio pauperum hominum terræ Angliæ" to the King complaining of the corruption of juries by the rich. By far the largest number of petitions in this Parliament came from religious communities. The King's Treas-

urer at this date was Bishop Walter Langton, of Lichfield and Coventry. His predecessor in that high office, Bishop William March, of Bath and Wells, though he died in the odour of sanctity, and efforts were made to procure his canonisation, seems to have anticipated the Tudor prelates in his views about church property, as he had advised Edward to take the money and plate of the monasteries to pay his army. In a petition of the master and brethren of the hospital without Carlisle to the King, we have a hint of the ecclesiastical devastation wrought by the Scottish invaders in the diocese of Carlisle. They ask for a grant of materials from the Forest of Inglewood for the rebuilding of their hospital, "qui totaliter combustus fuit et destructus per Scotos," a damage repeated by their equally savage Presbyterian descendants three centuries later, when they marched across the same diocese to the help of the Non-conformist and Parliamentary party in England against the King and the prelates. The assembled Commoners appear three times as petitioners. Mr. Maitland inclines to think that the petition of "the poor men of England" against the corruption of the juries by the rich, and against the meddling of ecclesiastical judges with temporal suits, proceeded "from the assembled Commons," and was "the outcome of their deliberations." He does not deny that the germ of a "House" of Commons already existed, held meetings, and debated their affairs and grievances, and were even encouraged by the King in so doing; nevertheless, the business of the foregoers of Mr. Labouchere and other members of the "People's House" in the Lent Parliament of 1305 was just what the writ of summons specifies, and no more. The King summoned them in order to do what he and his Council in Parliament should order to be done. The "Comunitas Angliæ" joined with the "Comites" and "Barones" in a petition to the King against the exportation of the wealth of the Anglican monasteries, especially by the Cistercians, to foreign houses. Edward was at the time involved in that contest with the clergy, or at least with the Primate, Robert Winchelsey, which Thomas Fuller has amusingly pictured. The King was doubtless glad of the support of the Commoners, and gave his assent to their petition, "though he did not at once convert it into a statute." Yet he refused his assent to both the petitions which the knights of the shires and burgesses of the towns presented on their own account. Nor did the King, "as far as we know," pertinently observes the editor, either "ask them for money" or "desire their consent to any new law." Mr. Maitland, in his remarks on the members of the Council, says that "during the year in question we hardly ever see the Archbishop of Canterbury in the King's presence. In all likelihood he is still a member of the Council, but he is in opposition and disgrace." There is a note of a letter from Archbishop Winchelsey to the Prior of Christ Church in the richest of all the volumes of the Historical Manuscripts Commission (Report V., Appendix), dated 1305, in which the Archbishop, after thanking the Prior for some information, says that he "need not take the trouble to come to London to the Parliament, for that no business would be transacted except the consideration in the Council (*in secretiori Regis Consilio*) of certain articles touching the state of the realm." It is possible that this may refer to the later Parliament held in the autumn of the same year.

The most significant point which Mr. Maitland brings to the front, and explains with his habitual lucidity and precision, deals with the then relations between Council and Parliament, so far as they are discoverable. The petitions are not addressed to Parliament, nor to the "House" of Lords in Parliament, nor to the "House" of Commons, but either "to the King," or to "the King and his Council." They are presented at or in a Parliament; but "at present Parliament itself is not conceived as a body that can be petitioned. A Parliament is rather an act than a body of persons, and one cannot present a petition to a colloquy, to a debate." Mr. Maitland observes that it is difficult, if not impossible, to believe that every prelate or baron was a member of the Council. "As yet," says he, "any meeting of the King's Council that had been summoned for general business seems to be a Parliament." The Parliament had not yet been so far made a *persona* as to enable men to say that "laws are made by, and not merely in, Parliament."

The Lent Parliament of 1305 was in Session only for three weeks. The crowd of "petitiones" was "expedited" by the King in Parliament, and the estates were sent home on March 21, as no longer wanted; but the King and his Council still continued in Session as a Parliament, in our modern sense. Mr. Maitland more than once refers to that laudably indefatigable explorer of Parliamentary precedents amongst early Parliament Rolls, William Prynne. Prynne was not the man to find precedents for the Protector Cromwell as he did for the Long Parliament which Cromwell had destroyed. But it is not at all improbable.

as we imagine, that Cromwell's great lawyers may have seen in the extra-Parliamentary "Ordinations" of the great kingly legislator a precedent for giving the force of laws made by Parliament to the "Ordinances" passed by his Highness the Lord Protector and his Council during the long period in which he resolved to rule without a Parliament, and when none would have been summoned if Cromwell could have found any other possible way of getting the money for his war with Spain. Cromwell's Council was an extremely small one in comparison with Edward's Council. But all the contemporary "petitiones Angliæ, Scotiæ, et Hiberniæ" upon as varied matters, great and small, and from as various individuals and communities as those catalogued by Mr. Maitland, went up to "the Protector and his Council," and were all settled with the least possible amount of "Parliament"—in the original sense of the word—to the great satisfaction of Mr. Carlyle, who would have seen a kindred heroic soul in Edward I. The Edwardian formula in this Parliament roll, "Ita responsum est: Rex vult quod," &c., needed only the substitution of "Protector" for "Rex" to serve as a precedent for Cromwell.

## BOOKS OF TRAVEL.

*From China to Peru: over the Andes.* By Mrs. Howard Vincent. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1894.

*Texan Rancho Life: with Three Months through Mexico in a "Prairie Schooner."* By Mary J. Jaques. London: Horace Cox. 1894.

*Beyond the Rockies: a Spring Journey in California.* By Charles Augustus Stoddard. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1894.

*Mountain, Moor, and Loch.* Illustrated by Pen and Pencil. On the Route of the West Highland Railway. London: Causton & Sons. 1894.

MRS. HOWARD VINCENT'S brightly written little book puts in a picturesque and compact form a great variety of valuable information. "South America Seen and Done from the Sea" might have been her second title had not the adventurous lady crossed the continent and climbed the Andes on mule-back. But, as a rule, a steamer was the floating hotel from which she and her husband made flying excursions. Everything on that continent is on a stupendous scale—the rivers, the mountains, the forests, the pampas, and, what is perhaps most strongly impressed on the traveller, the distances between the points of interest. The chief drawbacks to a journey by sea are the obnoxious quarantine regulations and the absence of harbours. The vast empire of Brazil, for example, possesses but a single quarantine station, and that is on an island far down the coast—a batch of emigrants on board Mrs. Vincent's steamer, being forbidden to land at Pernambuco, were carried 1,200 miles away from their destination. They were supposed to pay for the involuntary journey, with the other expenses; and, as all were poor and some penniless, the hardship was great. There was similar trouble, or even worse, at the equatorial ports on the Pacific Coast. Consequently there is much room for improvement in the arrangements; but nevertheless strict rules are a necessity. The South Americans live in chronic panic under the shadowing wings of the demon of yellow fever, which indeed did much to run up the expenses of the unfortunate Panama Canal; for the mortality among the labourers was tremendous when they stirred the malarious soil. Wherever the tropical vegetation is most gloriously luxuriant death and disease are sure to be lurking. As for the disembarking, with the exception of Rio, it must generally be done from open roadsteads, occasionally and partially protected by treacherous reefs towards certain points of the compass. The riverine Monte Video is little better off than its marine neighbours; for such estuaries as that of the La Plata are simply inland seas. Mrs. Vincent, who has sound views on unsound finance, tells a dismal tale of the depression in the Argentine Republic. The wrecks left by the collapse of the boom were everywhere visible in empty mansions seeking tenants, and public buildings a world too big for the present local necessities. Far more English gold has been buried out of sight in Argentina than the 55,000,000*l.* the French have sunk at Panama. Nor are the prices of produce encouraging for the bondholders, and we are told that it is only the Italian colonists who can make wheat-growing pay, as they are equally frugal and industrious. Nor was the monotonous journey across the Pampas made more cheerful by the skeletons of sheep and cattle that strewed the "camp." Most of them had perished in the prolonged drought, and they lay thickest near the dried-up watercourses. These boundless plains are in the way of contrast and effective preparation for the magnificent mountain scenery. Mrs. Vincent dwells upon it with eloquent enthusiasm; and yet the volcanic peaks, the gorges, and the views in general were scarcely sufficient reward for the sufferings she went through. The Spanish side-saddle was a seat

of torture, the toil was necessarily but painfully prolonged, the resting-places were dismal hovels, and the food was uneatable. She advises no lady to undertake the ascent who is not conscious of extraordinary physical powers. There is an extremely interesting account of a visit to the Nitrate Fields which were so fiercely contested in the war between Chili and Peru. It would seem that nothing but the accursed thirst for gold could induce any foreigner to settle on that rainless coast, where there is neither a tree nor a blade of grass, and where all the food and drink must be imported. It may be well for the speculators or their well-paid managers, but we pity the poor clerks. The saline, parching dust, rising in clouds on the slightest provocation, obscured even the smoke of the works. Mrs. Vincent was much impressed, as well she might be, with the engineering feats on that magnificent mountain railway, which might be called "Meigg's Folly," after the famous American contractor. It leads now to nowhere in particular among the cloud-capped summits of the Andes, although intended ultimately to make connexions with the wilderness among the navigable tributaries of the mighty Amazon. Finally, there are graphic sketches of the Isthmus of Panama, taken in a race against time by train to catch the mail boat at Colon, and of some of our own West Indian Islands, on which Colonel Vincent has an interesting contribution in the appendix.

Another delightful book by a lady is *Texan Rancho Life*. Mrs. Jaques had the original and happy thought of seeking a temporary home on a Texan cattle-station, and thence it followed as a natural result that she should narrate her very unique experiences. She liked the life so well that she subsequently bought a farm and built a house, and before reluctantly leaving for England she made the tour of Mexico in her own waggon or "prairie schooner." We have never met with a more spirited or amusing account of all we care to know about the present condition of Texas. The prettily illustrated volume is full of information as to the society, occupations, climate and resources of what was once known as "the Lone Star Republic." Mrs. Jaques was fortunate in getting a satisfactory answer to a tempting advertisement. She was received as a "paying guest" with a retired English naval officer who had built himself an exceptionally good house, and furnished it with some slight attention to comfort. As a rule, the settlers seem to disregard comfort, as they are almost indifferent to domestic decency, and even when doing fairly well they live in adobe hovels almost destitute of furniture. There are generally two or three beds in the living room, with a rough table and the indispensable seats. Even in the abode of the officer, who is styled Mr. "Boss," the fare was coarse and extremely monotonous. One should have a good digestion to stand the continual course of beans, bacon, and molasses, and the hot and half-baked cakes which go by the name of biscuits. Though it was a sheep-run, we are surprised to hear that mutton was seldom seen on the table; and a piece of beef was occasionally brought as a luxury from the neighbouring township. Mrs. Jaques was far better fitted for the ranching business than many of her young countrymen who, after failing at home, are sent out to try their fortunes in the South-West. If she gives their real names, as she apparently does, her young acquaintances have fair reason for complaint; for she tells how some broke down in examinations, how others had been going straight to the mischief, and how the innocence of one or two made them the victims of perpetual practical jokes. But these indiscretions, although perhaps unpleasant for the victims, make the book all the more entertaining reading. She says that horse-breeding and cattle-rearing are highly speculative, but that a steady young man can hardly fail to do well if he confines himself to merino sheep and their fleeces. Texas would seem, at first sight, to be a land of promise for domestic servants, as any untrained young girl can earn her 70*l.* per annum. But, then, dress and other commodities are so dear that the dollar scarcely goes further than our shilling. Mrs. Jaques, however, fails to make mention of the matrimonial prospects of any decent-looking female in a country where the fair sex, though numerically at a discount, is held in the highest honour. The roughest cowboy is so sensitive as to playful allusions to wife or sister that he shoots or stabs on the slightest provocation. In fact, they are a very ticklish race to deal with; and Mrs. Jaques, although a woman herself, was warned that she must be careful as to reprimanding them for their brutal treatment of animals. Any man who spoke up in the cause of humanity would be pretty sure to be shot down. The climate of Texas, though generally salubrious, still leaves something to desire. If the days are hot the nights are cool, and we hear nothing of those marrow-searching blizzards which make Dakota or Montana intolerable at intervals. But the rains are sometimes simply tremendous, and we do hear of a hailstorm with the hailstones as big as hen's eggs, which make it a task of veritable danger to rescue a dog left outside the



door. There are snakes, too, in abundance, and some of the most poisonous have the faculty of stinging after their demise. Mrs. Jaques gives capital descriptions of the dances and other festivities to which all neighbours are invited from far and near; of the fashionable tastes of the rough-and-ready cowboys, who, as they are always in the saddle, indulge in thin-soled, tight-fitting, and high-heeled boots; and of the manner of breaking the *bronchos* to ride and drive, which much reminds us of the methods of the Hon. Crasher in Market Harborough, when he put the plucky Mr. Sawyer in bodily terror by putting a hunter into harness.

Dr. Stoddard owns and edits a New York newspaper, and *Beyond the Rockies* appears to have originally been published in the form of letters to his journal. Though well written, it falls somewhat flat after the liveliness of *Texan Rancho Life*. The Doctor went the familiar round, and describes the familiar sights and scenes, including—as Mrs. Jaques does—the inevitable Yosemite Valley. But he has sundry useful remarks on the climate of California, which is by no means so equable or reliable as is generally supposed; and he is severe in his criticisms on the small officials who come in contact with the tourist, and who translate the “dignity of labour” into tyranny and objectionable swagger.

As for *Mountain, Moor, and Loch*, it deserves a more elaborate notice than we can afford it. It is written avowedly as an advertisement of the new West Highland Railway, which, establishing communications with the existing system at Tyn-drum, runs due north and then westwards to Fort William and Banavie. But it is very well written, and gives a picturesque and faithful description of a hitherto scarcely accessible country, sparsely populated by shepherds and gillies, and only visited by grouse-shooters and deer-stalkers. We have sketches with the pencil and the pen of the sublime or savage scenery, and are reminded of the many romantic associations, chiefly connected with the feuds of the clans and the disastrous Jacobite rebellions.

#### THE GREAT DIVORCE.

*The First Divorce of Henry VIII., as told in the State Papers.* By Mrs. Hope. Edited, with Notes and Introduction, by the Rev. Francis Aidan Gasquet, D.D., O.S.B. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner, & Co., Limited. 1894.

MANY as the books are on the divorce of Queen Katherine, this new account of it by the late Mrs. Hope is by no means a superfluous addition to their number; for nowhere else have we an equally full and satisfactory account of the proceedings in this famous cause as recorded in the State Papers of the reign of Henry VIII. Mrs. Hope, whose earlier works proved her a well-read and careful student of ecclesiastical history, left at her death this volume in manuscript without having given it a final revision. Though it was written with the intention of making it merely a part of a larger work on the ecclesiastical changes of the sixteenth century, it is complete in itself, and it has been edited by the Rev. F. A. Gasquet, than whom no one better fitted for that duty could well have been selected. He notes in his introduction two points on which he finds reason to differ from his author. He justly insists that the Convocation of 1531 did not, in recognizing the King as “quantum per legem Christi licet, supremum caput,” attribute to him “absolute spiritual jurisdiction and legislative power,” and he illustrates the position of the clergy by examining the alterations that the King demanded in the preamble of the clerical composition, showing that the first clause in them, which is concerned with the new title, should be interpreted by the light of the King’s proposals contained in the other clauses, and by the final determination of the clergy with respect to them. Again, he protests against the mistaken assertion to be found in this volume that Bishop Fisher was persuaded to give his assent in Convocation to the supremacy. He has added references to Mrs. Hope’s authorities in foot-notes, and in one of these quotes Brewer’s opinion against the statement in the text that Wolsey put the first notion of the divorce into the King’s head. This mistake, once common enough, has made Mrs. Hope’s chapter on “the opening of the plot,” or the rise and early development of Henry’s desire for the divorce, of less value than the rest of her work. Both in this and one or two other matters of less importance, she has treated Sanders’s book on the *Anglican Schism* with too great respect. Nor are we inclined to accept as historical the circumstantial story noted here from Harpsfield’s *Pretended Divorce*, which represents Rowland Lee, Bishop of Lichfield, as officiating at the marriage of Henry and Anne Boleyn.

Although Mrs. Hope wrote as a Roman Catholic, her narrative is almost free from religious bias, and, with the two or three

exceptions that we have noted, may, we think, be relied upon as regards all matters of fact. We cannot, however, go quite so far as she does in her estimate of the conduct of Pope Clement VII. While we are ready to admit that the Pope was sincerely anxious to do right, and was placed in a position of extreme difficulty, he nevertheless appears to us to have been swayed more than once by political considerations, and specially by his eagerness to recover papal territory, to have lacked courage and decision, and to have exhibited an unbecoming desire to escape responsibility. The complicated course of the proceedings relating to the divorce is traced by Mrs. Hope with much skill, and many difficult points—such, for example, as the difference between the general commission offered by the Pope and the decretal commission demanded by Henry, and the relation of the Brief of Pope Julius II. to the Bull of dispensation—are admirably explained. The history of the cause, as we have it here from the letters and formal documents relating to it, exhibits in a strong light the preposterous nature of the demands that the King made upon the Pope; his will was to override the law of Christendom and all considerations of justice and decency. To Henry that which he desired, whatever it might be, was right, and nothing, however sacred in the eyes of others, was held by him to be of any weight, if it stood in the way of the accomplishment of his will. His conduct to his Queen was extraordinarily wanting in decency, and his utter neglect of everything that was due to her as a woman, and we think also his inability to understand that anything was due to any one except himself, are curiously illustrated by his request, shortly before the birth of Elizabeth, that Katherine “would send him a richly embroidered cloth she had brought from Spain to wrap her children in at baptism, as Anne would be glad to use it very soon.” Throughout the whole of these trying years Katherine behaved, as is well shown here, with a dignity and courage worthy of a queen. By turns bullied and cajoled, constantly urged by men in high places both in Church and State to give up her rights, or to fall into some snare that would enable the King to take an unfair advantage of her, she always remained firm, patient, and, so far as was possible, obedient to her cruel and unreasonable husband. Mrs. Hope’s narrative goes down to the ending of the case by the Pope’s sentence declaring the marriage with Katherine valid and the issue thereof legitimate. Her volume is well arranged and pleasantly written, and relates in a convenient form and with commendable precision a piece of history that we may almost say is as difficult to understand thoroughly as it is important alike as regards the effects of the divorce in England, the light that the proceedings in it throw upon the characters of all concerned, and its connexion with European affairs.

#### SPANISH AND PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES.

*Christopher Columbus and the Participation of the Jews in the Spanish and Portuguese Discoveries.* By Dr. M. Kayserling. Translated from the Author’s Manuscript, with his sanction and revision, by Charles Gross, Ph.D., Assistant Professor of History, Harvard College, New York. London: Longmans, Green, & Co. 1894.

WHEN the reader finds a book lettered Christopher Columbus outside, and on inquiry discovers that it is less about him than about Luis de Santangel inside, he may, perhaps, feel defrauded. A reference to the sub-title will, to some extent, show him that no deception is intended, for the volume that he is expected to read is about the explorer “and the Participation of the Jews in the Spanish and Portuguese Discoveries.” We say to some extent; for while there is very little about Columbus, there is not very much about the participation of the Jews. What there is amounts to more or less this—that Luis de Santangel, who was the *Escribano de Racion*, or Keeper of the Privy Purse of Ferdinand the Catholic, was a Marrano—that is, a member of a family of Jews who had been forcibly converted, or at least constrained to behave themselves outwardly as if they were Christians. Santangel advanced the money for fitting out the ships which sailed from Palos on the great voyage. His family had suffered much from the Inquisition. Some of them were burnt as “relapsed,” and several were sentenced to do public penance at *autos de fé*. Luis kept the confidence of Ferdinand to the end. His children were pensioned by the King, and received a letter of safe-conduct from him forbidding all men to call them Jews.

But Dr. Kayserling does not keep to the share of the Jews in the discoveries. He writes rather of their general sufferings at the time. The story is a deplorable one, and nobody, we take it, would now repeat the sophistical, and intrinsically somewhat brutal, defence of the Inquisition, which was, at least in audacity, the masterpiece of Joseph de Maistre. But the tale is thrice-

told; and, to be candid, more than one of the previous tellings has been better than Dr. Kayserling's. The share which the Jews had in the first settlements of the New World is a very good subject. If Dr. Kayserling had kept to that he would have found plenty to say. The Jews in Brazil, and their share in the struggle with the Dutch, their exodus to Jamaica when it was under its rather odd mixture of Spanish and Portuguese rule, with their by no means insignificant part in the English conquest and establishment in the island, would have filled such a volume as his comfortably. As it is, he has only written a superficial and rather "spotty" account of one period in their general sufferings. Dr. Kayserling also does not seem to us to possess a critical mind. He is clearly more than half-inclined to believe that there is something in the theory that the Red Indians are the Lost Tribes. Where one notices a faculty for believing such nonsense, it is best to give it, politely but firmly, a wide berth.

#### WATCHMAKING.

*Former Clock and Watch Makers and their Work, including an Account of the Development of Horological Instruments from the Earliest Mechanism. With Portraits of Masters of the Art; a Directory of over Five Thousand Names, and some Examples of Modern Construction. By F. J. Britten. London: Spon. 1894.*

THE chronological summary with which this book commences contains many items which will be new to the general reader. Mr. Britten is not always quite intelligible except to some one who has acquired previous information. The very first line runs thus:—"Weight clocks credited to Gerbert about 990." "Credited" here has nothing to do with any debtor or creditor account. Mr. Britten means that in 990 weight clocks were invented, or supposed to be invented, by one Gerbert. Two or three other items follow, and we come to "Clock of Lightfoot at Glastonbury," about which there is no ambiguity. But the general reader wants to know who was really the first person to mark a dial into hours and to put behind it machinery which would move with regularity. Also he would like to have an explanation of such terms as "arbor," "mainspring," "balance spring," "pendulum," "escapement," and such a sentence as this:—"The distinctive feature of this watch is that, although a verge, the fusee has been discarded for a resting-barrel." But what are a verge, a fusee, and a resting-barrel? We want a glossary of technical terms to bring Mr. Britten's book within the capacity of an ordinary mind.

The art of marking time accurately is one of the things that separate a civilized man from a savage. The ticking of a watch is one of the first things to arouse the intelligence of a baby. The art was not invented in a day. It has grown up slowly from very primitive beginnings. Mr. Britten goes fully into the origin both of the clock—clock means bell—and also of the time-keeper. "Many of the early efforts consisted merely of a bell sounded at regular intervals by hand, the instant of ringing being determined by a sun dial or sand glass." Chaucer notices the regularity of the abbey horologe; but by his time real clocks, in the modern sense of the word, had begun to be used. In 1300, or thereabouts, a tower was built in Palace Yard opposite Westminster Hall, with a clock which struck the hours. It is said that the cost was defrayed by a fine imposed upon Chief Justice Hengham for altering a record. This story, which is repeated in numberless books on London history, rests on very insufficient evidence. It is not likely that a king so inflexible as Edward I. would fine his Chief Justice, and yet continue him in office. The date 1300 must be given up. According to the trustworthy Dugdale, Hengham was made Chief Justice of the Common Pleas in 1278, having sixty marks a year allowed for his maintenance. In 1301, on the 19th of September, he was appointed Chief Justice of the King's Bench, and was still sitting, and was continued in office, at the accession of Edward II. His *Summa Parva* was a well-known law book. The story of the fine and of the building of the tower in New Palace Yard seems to have been put into circulation by Daines Barrington, best remembered as the correspondent of Gilbert White of Selborne; but it is probably only one of a number of errors into which he fell. His paper on clocks was read before the Society of Antiquaries about a hundred years ago. The oldest clock of which we know anything in England was that of St. Alban's Abbey, put up in 1326; but Mr. Britten points out that it was more of a "planetarium," for there is no mention in the account of it now in the Bodleian of any regulator or escapement. Pope Sylvester II., mentioned above as Gerbert, is considered by some authorities to have invented the escapement, and to be, therefore, the real father of modern horology. He was elected pope in the

last year but one of the tenth century. Towards the end of the thirteenth century there was a clock at St. Paul's, and the hours were struck by figures called "Paul's Jacks." Walter the Orgoner was employed by the Dean and Chapter to make a dial for it, whence Mr. Britten infers "that the clock previously struck the hours, but had no dial." An angel pointed to the hours. Mr. Britten gives a cut of the Glastonbury dial. It is now in Wells Cathedral. In 1835 the Dean and Chapter perpetrated one of those pieces of vandalism which seem so easily to beset deans and chapters, and replaced the old works by new. It does not seem to have occurred to them that they might for less money buy a modern clock, and that the old one was too precious to be touched. It is at least satisfactory to learn that the works of Lightfoot are in the South Kensington Museum, where neither deans nor chapters can ever reach them, and, being controlled by a pendulum, are in full working order. Against the Wells barbarism may be set the action of the authorities of Christ Church, at Oxford. When their ancient clock went out of order they obtained a new one from the celebrated Vulliamy, and commissioned him to clean the old one. It still remains in the cathedral. Mr. Britten describes fully, but in very technical language, the movement of De Vick's clock, made about 1360, in which there is an arrangement for regulating speed, which seems to have been the foundation of all that has been done since. Who De Vick was and where his clock is to be seen Mr. Britten does not say. He may be the same as the "De Wyck" mentioned below.

The ancients never invented a clock or watch. We find such surgical and other instruments from Pompeii in the Naples Museum that this appears the more strange. They had a clepsydra, or water clock, said to have been first used in Egypt, introduced into Greece by Plato, and taken to Rome by Scipio Nasica. Caesar must have had something of the kind during his expedition into England or he could not have found out that our summer nights are shorter than those of Italy. King Alfred invented a marked candle which in the absence of draught may have been effectual enough, especially in a monastery where the canonical hours had to be kept. There were many other inventions directed to the same end; but none of them contained what we call clockwork, and none of them really advanced the science of which Mr. Britten treats. The Glastonbury clock was, therefore, an original step and a distinct beginning, so far as England is concerned, and progress has continued from that day to this. A very old example was in Dover Castle, where it is still to be seen. It dates from the fourteenth century. Another ancient clock is in Exeter Cathedral, but has received some modern improvements. Two very interesting papers, the first of a long series, appeared in the thirty-third volume of *Archæologia*, in 1849, one, on clocks, by Admiral Smyth, and the other, on watches, by the late Mr. Octavius Morgan. They are the chief authorities still. An interesting point is mentioned by Admiral Smyth. In 1737 a Frenchman, named Le Roy, published a treatise on the regulation of time in which he remarks on the rarity in France of large clocks marking minutes, and adds that they are common in England. But a clock, as Admiral Smyth observes, speaking of Henry de Wyck's contrivance, is "not the invention of one man, but an assemblage of successive inventions, each of them, perhaps, made by a different person, and probably all at different periods."

A portable watch was possible when the mainspring had been invented as a motive power. A spring is little affected by gravitation, is easily regulated and controlled. A passage is adduced by Admiral Smyth from the *Roman de la Rose* to show that portable clocks at least existed before 1305, and Sir John Paston mentions several "lyttel clockkes" in 1469. Peter Hele, of Nuremberg, seems to have made the first pocket clocks or watches about 1500. What was the dial which Jacques describes the fool as drawing from his poke? Biron, in *Love's Labour's Lost*, speaks of a "German clock," and there is no reason that Jacques meant only a pocket sundial, and not a watch, though Knight and some others will have it so. Peter Hele seems to have made what we should call a repeater as early as 1511. The French word *montre* describes an instrument which showed the hours as distinguished from one which sounded them. Our word "watch" refers to the instrument by which we can see and mark, if not hear, the progress of time. Mr. Britten tells us of many curious watches. They were made in all kinds of shapes before the modern flat pat of butter pattern was adopted. One figured at p. 49 is in the shape of a skull, and is said to have belonged to Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland. Two of these Death's-head watches are in the British Museum, and many others are known. They date from the middle of the sixteenth century. Some are like padlocks; others are crosses, books, acorns, and cockle shells. Oval watches are probably the most common. One of them, in



the British Museum, measures "but half an inch across by three-quarters of an inch long, and has plain silver capsule-shaped outer cases." A still smaller example is in the South Kensington Museum. Leicester gave Queen Elizabeth a watch which formed the fastening of a bracelet. The Queen was very fond of watches and had a large collection, many of them handsomely jewelled. Jewels in the interior to diminish the friction of the pivots were very early in use, and Facio, a Genevan working in London, applied in 1704 to Parliament for an Act to give him the monopoly of the invention. He was opposed by the Clockmakers' Company, who produced a watch made long before Facio's time by Huggerford, of London, in which was an amethyst, and the Committee threw out the Bill. Ignatius Huggerford was admitted to the Company in 1671. Mr. Britten, however, considers that Facio was hardly treated, as Huggerford's jewel was a mere ornament and no part of the works. Facio retired to Worcester, where he died in 1753.

Mr. Britten's account of the great clock at the Houses of Parliament should be read. He is apparently unaware of the fact that the Mr. Denison of whom he speaks is now Lord Grimthorpe. "In 1851," he says, "Mr. Denison, a barrister, holding a good position at the Parliamentary bar, was requested by the Government to draw up in conjunction with Mr. G. B. Airy, the Astronomer Royal, a specification for its construction." The centrifugal tendency of Lord Grimthorpe's mind on that of his condutors is well and amusingly illustrated by what follows. First, Vulliamy, the clock-maker, refused to work with him, and then Sir George Airy; and at last Lord Grimthorpe, left to himself, called Mr. Dent into consultation, and, says Mr. Britten, the Westminster clock is the finest time-keeper in the world. This most interesting volume concludes with a long list of eminent clock and watch makers, but there is neither index nor table of contents. To make it really useful it should also have a glossary of technical terms.

#### FRENCH LITERATURE.

*Les grands écrivains français—Froissart.* Par Mary Darmesteter. Paris: Hachette.

*La littérature scandinave.* Par L. Bernardini. Paris: Plon.

*Une profession de foi rationnelle.* Par Léon Beaugrand. Paris: Perrin.

*Manuel pratique de l'astronome.* Par W. de Fonvielle. Paris: Tignol.

*Le lys rouge.* Par Anatole France. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

*Léonarda.* Par B. Björnson. Traduction d'Auguste Monnier. Paris: Grasilier.

IT was graceful in M. Jusserand to allot the Froissart volume of his series to Mme. Darmesteter; and it was also not unwise. There is a kind of hereditary sympathy with Queen Philippa's secretary and the Black Prince's chronicler which exists in every one of English race to an extent not excited by any other Old French writer. And, with some amiable crotchets and prejudices, Mme. Darmesteter really knows her later middle ages very well. She has certainly succeeded in making a very pleasant book of what is known—little, but a great deal more than was known not so long ago—about the Canon of Chimay; and she has not only proclaimed, but kept stoutly to the only sound principle, *hypotheses non fingo*, after a fashion which we did not always find in the works of Miss Mary Robinson. Thanks to M. Longnon's kindness, she has been enabled to give a minute account of the long-lost and recently found romance of *Méliador*, which we propose ourselves much joy in reading when M. Longnon has printed it. It is thirty thousand lines long, they say; and would it were sixty! Of the better known work, both verse and prose, Mme. Darmesteter has, with excellent judgment, satisfied herself with giving no elaborate analyses, using it chiefly to illustrate the author's life, and of course allotting full, but not excessive or pedantic, notice to the strange bibliographical history of the First Book—well known to students, of course, but not at all known to the general public. And though Froissart did in his later days take a less complimentary view of us than in the golden prime of Edward III.'s successes, there is no mediæval writer to whom England is more indebted than to him, none the reading of whom (for nobody reads the corrected version) is better calculated to create and sustain the true spirit of an Englishman. The book ought to appear in English for the benefit of those who have nothing but their own and the author's mother-tongue; but meanwhile it is extremely agreeable in French.

France appears to be waking (a little late, perhaps; but then the French have never been very quick to wake to literary phenomena in other countries) to Scandinavian literature; and though there are wise prophets of her own, such as M. Larroumet, who have pointed out the general moral that there is nothing new under the sun, even in Ibsenism, she "bites at it." M. Bernardini has supplemented his reading by the approved receipt of taking a

tour to the country, or countries, and his first fifty pages contain a very pleasant sketch thereof. Then he attacks the literature, and is by no means ill worth reading thereon. But we must apologize for not criticizing his criticism at any very great length. We are sure that Messieurs Snoileky and Strinberg, Brandes and Bang, Lie, Kelland, Björnson, and Ibsen, are all very respectable people, and we have discussed them, or most of them, at length in these pages. But, to confess the truth, we do not think that, even taken altogether, they are an epoch-making phenomenon. And so enough of them for this time.

M. Léon Beaugrand informs us that "j'ai cherché; j'ai étudié; j'ai sérieusement médité." It is almost impossible that these processes should have been other than beneficial to his own soul—and we sincerely hope that they have been. Further, we should not be far from being persuaded to be of M. Beaugrand's opinion if it did not happen that, fortunately for us, we are in no need of persuasion. We, like him, are sure, or as sure as we are of anything, that "l'homme est un être composé d'une âme immatérielle et d'un corps matériel et organisé." We think the reply of Our Lord in reference to the great Commandments an "admirable réponse," and we are prepared to opine, by no means on'y with the bonnet, in M. Beaugrand's sense very frequently. But where we fall a little apart from him is on the point whether a profession of faith of this kind, unless it be made with some quite extraordinary force of style or otherwise, does much good. Our gracious king George III. is sometimes laughed at. But when we think of his celebrated apophthegm that he "didn't know the Bible wanted any apology," it is borne in upon us that he was a very wise man.

That M. Wilfrid de Fonvielle is in case to give a *Manuel pratique de l'astronome* is generally known, and we must express admiration for the treatise as it lies before us. It is in a handsome shape, well printed, well illustrated, yet cheap and handy; it gives a mass not merely of results of experience, but of reasonable theories on them; and it is written with perfect clearness.

We rather grudge M. Anatole France to the ordinary novel of society and adultery; and it does not make things much better when he makes it a novel "with keys." Of course nobody who knows anything can mistake the original of the poet "Choulette" here; and, though the sketch is very amusing and not at all ill-natured, we do not think it ought to have been made. "Paul Vence" is equally unmistakable and less amusing, but also more permissible. Of the principal characters, the jilted lover Le Menil seems not to know the great maxim that, when a lady says to a gentleman "Good-bye," the gentleman, if he be such, does not say "Au revoir." The happy man, Dechartre, is, like the hero of *Lucrezia Floriani*, a victim of that retrospective jealousy which is the most idiotic, though not the least agonizing, form of the disease. Thérèse, the heroine, richly deserves the poetical justice she gets, and that is all we can say for her. Of the minor characters, Vivian Bell, the Anglo-French poetess, who interlards her sentences with "darling" at every fifth word, is almost as amusing as Choulette, and, like him, not at all ill-natured. But the book is not worthy of the author of *La pâtisserie de la Reine Pédagogue*.

We can only mention a translation of Björnson's *Léonarda* (O those Scandinavians!), with a wild blast of the horn blown by M. Maurice Bigeon; an odd and amiable little version, by M. Jacquelin (Paris: Chaix), of some *Anecdotes et souvenirs de la reine Victoria*, from the English of Mrs. Watson, whom we have not the honour to know; and the twenty-seventh fascicule of M. Flammarion's *Dictionnaire encyclopédique*.

#### NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

BLUE-BOOKS should be the most easily assimilated form of literature—excepting, perhaps, pure romance. Such is the theory of the Blue-book. It has no *raison d'être* excepting that of present and practicable utility. In fact, however, the Blue-book is frequently nothing but an indigestible mass of statements and statistics presented in an unintelligible form, especially when it represents the first-fruits of a Royal Commission. We are unwilling to hint that Royal Commissions are not worthy of the faith, the generous faith, that most Englishmen accord to them. At the worst, perhaps, the expert hand may extract matter of value from their printed works. Mr. Geoffrey Drage, in *The Unemployed* (Macmillan & Co.), acknowledges handsomely that there is virtue to be extracted from the Board of Trade Report on "Agencies and Methods for dealing with the Unemployed." There is, he says, "excellent specialist work" in the Report, and the second part of his volume testifies to this excellent work, and to the excellent painstaking of Mr. Drage in bringing it to light

from the superincumbent verbiage under which it lies buried. But the editing of this material is, in his opinion, so inconceivably muddle-headed as to justify the official contempt of all the other Labour Departments of the world. Perhaps this costly work has suffered through the multiplicity of editors. One, perchance, who knew his native tongue—how to write it, and how to express the plain conclusions of the mass of evidence, relevant and irrelevant, with which he had to deal—would have produced a very different kind of report. Certainly, the illustrations cited by Mr. Drage illustrate clearly enough what he describes as the “aloofly thinking and pretentious writing” that distinguish the opening and concluding parts of the Board of Trade Report. Mr. Drage’s book is, indeed, a challenge for inquiry, which may or may not be accepted. Pending this dubious event, Mr. Drage draws his own conclusions, after a strenuous examination of the Report, and deals also independently with the question of the unemployed and the remedial agencies employed or suggested as solutions of that complex question. His book, in fact, is an attempt to make good the chief defects of the cumbersome Report which he criticizes. He defines in clear terms the meaning of the phrase “the Unemployed,” the various kinds of unemployed, the various causes of unemployment, and he classifies the various relief agencies that are in force, or may be set working, and the results that ensue, or may be expected to ensue. His book is a substantial and valuable contribution to the difficult subject of which it treats.

If English readers are being entertained by the reports of the trials of Anarchists in the Paris law courts, they will be still more entertained by the grave comments of M. Félix Dubois on the “psychology”—blessed word!—of the Anarchist in *The Anarchist Peril* (Fisher Unwin), of which we have a translation by Mr. Ralph Derechef, with illustrations from the notorious *Père Peinard*. The interrogations of the judge are not more amusing than M. Dubois’s solemn record of the “confessions” of Anarchists, which prove, as he thinks, the wonderful logical ability, the moral sensibility, the love of justice, and other virtuous qualities of Anarchists. The loftiest virtues, it seems, impelled the persons whose confessions he records to become Anarchists. The long catalogue of their “confessions” is set forth with exquisite seriousness, whether it be the most obvious cant, or the most windy sentimentality. The book is, indeed, a “document.”

The new volume of *The Gentleman’s Magazine Library* is devoted to Ecclesiology and edited by Mr. F. A. Milne. In no respect are its contents inferior in interest to the preceding volumes on Topography, or less worthy of revival in book-form. Many well-known writers on archaeology contribute important papers to the three sections, Early Church History, Church Interiors, and Church History, into which the editor has conveniently arranged the material selected. The controversy between Mr. J. H. Parker and Mr. Dimock and others, of some thirty years since, on the construction of tenth-century churches is still one that retains certain aspects of interest. The articles on Church Bells, on Music, and on Towers and Spires are also full of interest to present-day readers.

*The Antiquary* (Elliot Stock), half-yearly volume (January–June), is as varied in interest as usual. Mr. R. C. Hope continues his topographical notes on “Holy Wells”—a theme of irresistible attraction to antiquaries; Captain Gambier contributes articles on the Guanches; Mr. Laurence Gomme throws light on that perennial theme, the custom of “wroth silver” at Knightlow; and Mr. A. M. Bell writes a delightful paper on “An Elizabethan Schoolboy and his Book.” Mr. Bell, by the way, cites an illustration of the modern treatment of ancient churches, which shows that the restorer may have the gift of humour. At Headley some thirty years since they erected by the ruins of the fourteenth-century church a new church, and put up a tablet in the adjacent ruins with the inscription, “St. Mary’s 1317. Sic transit gloria Mundi, 1860,” by way of commemorating the destruction of the old building. Hard by is “an old octagonal font with a 1662 pointed wooden cover.” This they did not “restore” to the new church, but prefixed a brand-new font.

Mr. J. W. Tutt’s collection of articles descriptive chiefly of insect life, *Woodside, Burnside, Hillside and Marsh* (Swan Sonnenschein & Co.), is a book of varied charm and interest to all field collectors and active naturalists. The descriptions of summer ramblings through the marsh lands of the Medway and the Kentish shores of the Thames are admirably vivacious. Mr. Tutt is an excellent observer of nature and writes in a style that is pleasing and unpretentious.

Many English visitors to the Louvre will, doubtless, welcome Professor B. H. Gausseron’s translation of MM. Lafenestre and Richtenberger’s descriptive and illustrated Catalogue, *The*

*National Museum of the Louvre*, published by Messrs. Dean & Son, and forming a volume of the series “Painting in Europe.” Some few weeks since we referred to the inconvenience caused to visitors by rearrangement of pictures in noticing the new edition of the *National Gallery Catalogue*. Such changes are much less frequent, and decidedly less necessary, at the Louvre, and the authors of this French Catalogue have smoothed the way for visitors by the excellent classifying method they have adopted. They begin their description of nearly two thousand pictures with the Salle Lacaze, the first room reached after entering by the Sully Pavilion, taking the pictures, room by room, in the order they occur. Should any pictures have been re-arranged, the reader has but to consult the index-key, which gives the whole collection in numerical order, with the number of the page that contains the description.

*Count Robert of Paris*, with illustrations by Mr. W. Hatherell, and *The Surgeon’s Daughter*, illustrated by Mr. W. B. Wollen, the new volumes of Mr. Nimmo’s “Border” edition of Scott’s novels, are not books that call for editorial comment. Criticism has little to do with them, as Mr. Lang justly remarks. Written in the shadow of calamity, they suggest nothing but a stirring of the embers, and it cannot be said that the “wonted fires” of the romancer live in the embers. Yet in *Count Robert* he had a subject that was both new and inspiring. Perhaps the greatest falling off is to be noticed in the want of invention. The story does not move. Though one of the latest in date, it is the oldest in fashion. Curiously old-fashioned, for example, is the use of the term “female”—once general, and now confined to certain newspaper reporters and the speech of the vulgar—in the account of the rescue of Bertha from the ape Sylvanus:—“Relieved from his presence, Hereward had time to look at the female whom he had succoured.” A modern novelist would not dare to speak of his heroine as “the female.” Mr. Hatherell, by the way, has made much of the ape, of whom Scott has made too much, as Mr. Lang thinks. The murder of Agelastes, however, is decidedly a good stroke.

It is not a little strange that *The Fair Maid of Perth*, which forms the August volume of Messrs. A. & C. Black’s “Dryburgh” edition of Scott, should have been produced in the same untoward circumstances that attended the writing of *Count Robert*, since it is one of the most stirring romances of the series, and in point of execution one of the most artistic. Mr. C. M. Hardie’s illustrations are good, for the most part, though the Catherine of his “Valentine’s kiss” scene is scarcely satisfactory. Several of the remaining drawings, however, are excellent.

*Designs for Church Embroidery*, by A. R., with descriptive text by Alethea Wiel (Chapman & Hall), is a volume of some thirty original designs in outline for various ecclesiastical vestments—chasubles, stoles, cope-hoods, and so forth—with which is issued a card of specimen silks of Messrs. Liberty’s “filo floss” kind, for the guidance of the needleworker, which includes over two hundred different colour shades, arranged from light to dark through the whole scale. “Suggestions and hints,” rather than finished or elaborate work, are what A. R. offers in these designs, and many of the designs undoubtedly possess the merits of graceful floral treatment and effective symbolism. Such, for example, are the designs for a stole (8 and 9). The series suggested by the account of Aaron’s vestments (25–30), in which bells and pomegranates are ingeniously combined as the leading ornamental motif, comprises designs for chalice-veil, cope-hood, stole, burse, chasuble, and cope, which are well conceived and excellent in effect. The more elaborate designs—No. 3 is exceedingly elaborate—must be considered fairly severe tests of the embroiderer’s skill.

The British farmer, in these days of technical colleges and manuals of science, is well supplied with the means of knowledge necessary to keep him abreast of the modern ideal of equipment. A useful addition to his library is the translation by Professor Ainsworth Davis of *Agricultural Zoology*, by Dr. J. Ritzema Bos (Chapman & Hall), with an introduction by Miss Ormerod, whose entomological researches have done so much to arouse the practical agriculturist to the necessity of scientific instruction in the origin and prevention of the pests that afflict his crops and live stock. Dr. Bos’s work is clear and comprehensive, and has the excellent merit of not seeking to establish a hard-and-fast line between the enemies and friends of the farmer. It treats in practical fashion of the good deeds and the ill perpetrated by beasts, birds, or insects, and thus will do good by staying the all-destructive hand of indiscriminating ignorance. The book ought to be in the possession of every farmer. It is both entertaining and useful. The illustrative diagrams are excellent.

Under the title *The Great Indian Epics* (Bell & Son, Professor



J. C. Oman has epitomized in narrative form the stories of the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharata*, and added notes and an introduction by way of commentary. Mr. Oman's book is condensed from translations, not directly from the Sanskrit originals of the poems, but it will be not the less appreciated by many English readers, and will serve as a readable introduction to those translations by natives which the writer justly commends.

*Boys of the Bible*, by Lady Magnus (Raphael Tuck & Son), is a pretty volume for children's reading, illustrated by John Lawson and Henry Rylands. The coloured pictures are, generally speaking, less pleasing than the others—though possibly the non-critical eyes of the young will not find them so.

We have also received *The Teacher's Handbook of Slöjd*, by Otto Salomon, of Naäs (Philip & Son), translated by Mary Walker and William Nelson, second edition; *Life of St. Francis of Assisi*, by Paul Sabatier, translated by Louise Seymour Houghton (Hodder & Stoughton); *My Garden Walk*, by W. Preston Johnston (New Orleans: Hansell & Bird); *The Fairest of the Angels*, by Mary Colborne-Veel (H. Cox); *Poetical Works of W. Tidd Matson* (Elliot Stock); and *Botanical Charts and Definitions* (Philip & Son), compiled by Miss A. E. Brooke and Miss G. C. Brooke.

*We beg leave to state that we cannot return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception, even if stamps for return of MS. are sent. The Editor must also entirely decline to enter into correspondence with the writers of MSS. sent in and not acknowledged.*

ADVERTISEMENTS intended for the SATURDAY REVIEW should be addressed to Messrs. R. ANDERSON & Co., 14 Cockspur Street, or to the OFFICE, 38 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, LONDON. A printed Scale of Charges may be obtained on application.

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The Obligatory Subjects will be English, Arithmetic, Algebra, Euclid (Books I., II., III.), Latin, and either a modern Foreign Language or Greek, or Logic.

Candidates are required to forward their names, together with the Examination Fee of 25s., to the Secretary of the College, not later than August 25.

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July, 1894.

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THREE ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS will be offered for competition in September, viz.—one of £100 in Chemistry and Physics, with either Physiology, Botany, or Zoology, for first-year Students; one of £50 in Anatomy, Physiology, and Chemistry for third-year students.

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A. J. Allardye..... 18th .....	9,363
R. A. Carpenter..... 20th .....	8,909
(4,445 more than last time—thus more than doubling his marks).	
G. A. Jamieson..... 22nd .....	9,270
(2,701 more than last November).	

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Lieut. L. M. Dyson, Doncaster Artillery..... 1,030

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